THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JANUARY, 1802.

ART. I. *The Works of James Harris, Esq.* With an Account of his Life and Character, by his Son the Earl of Malmesbury. 2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Wingrave. 1801.

RECOLLECTING with gratitude the satisfaction and improvement which we had formerly derived from a perusal of Mr. Harris's works,—his *Hermes*, or Inquiry into Universal Grammar, three Treatises, Philosophical Arrangements, and Philological Enquiries,—we took up the present volumes with eagerness, because they promised us an account of the life and character of that learned and ingenious writer. This promise interested us the more, also, as it proceeded from the pen of his son; whose talents, so conspicuously exerted in public life, we have often viewed with esteem and deference. We have now to state that the noble editor has ably executed the task in which he engaged: but we must add the expression of our sincere regret that he has not indulged his own feelings, and those of the public, in delineating at greater length a character which united, in a remarkable degree, the amiable and the respectable virtues; and in expatiating more on the occurrences of a life which was spent in promoting the best interests of society. The memoirs of such a man were not likely, however detailed, to be tedious; and Lord Malmesbury has made them too concise to be perfectly satisfactory. We rise from a perusal of this biographical sketch discontented, not with what has been done, since the account is written with much feeling and propriety, but because more has not been performed.

The memoirs are prefaced by the following observations:

'There are few readers, I believe, who do not desire to know something more of an author than is commonly to be learned merely from his own writings. What he has been in private life, and in his domestic retirement: what appear to have been his habits of study, and of relaxation; how he has conducted himself as a member of society, so as to have deserved either praise or blame;—all these are natural topics of enquiry concerning every writer who has attained considerable literary eminence. To gratify a curiosity so

reasonable, is one motive which has engaged me in the present undertaking: but, I will confess, it is not the only one.

'The pride which I feel in being the son of such a father, and the gratitude and affection with which I must ever recollect him, have also powerfully induced me to pay this public tribute of respect to his memory. To his early care of my education, to his judicious introduction of me to respectable friends and patrons, to his constant good advice and excellent example, I am fond of attributing whatever credit I may have acquired in the various active employments that have fallen to my share.

'I reflect with the highest pleasure on his having seen me, during many years, engaged in the service of my country; and I can with truth say, that such advantages of rank or distinction as I have been fortunate enough to acquire, which he did not live to witness, have, from that very circumstance, lost much of their value in my estimation.'

Such sentiments reflect distinguished credit on the heart of Lord Malmesbury; and they are very different from the cold suggestions of a prudential selfishness, which we have observed scattered through the life and correspondence of a late celebrated historian. As we proceed in this interesting memoir, we are informed that Mr. Harris was the eldest son of James Harris, Esq. of the Close of Salisbury, by his second wife, the Lady Elizabeth Ashley, who was the third daughter of Anthony Earl of Shaftesbury, and sister to the celebrated author of the Characteristics, as well as to the Hon. Maurice Ashley Cooper, the elegant translator of Xenophon's Cyropædia;—that he was born July 20th, 1709;—and that he received the early part of his education under the Rev. Mr. Hill, master of the grammar school at Salisbury, 'who was long known and respected in the West of England as an instructor of youth.' At school, Mr. Harris remained till the age of sixteen; he was then entered as a gentleman commoner at Wadham college, Oxford; and having completed his academical studies, his father removed him to Lincoln's Inn, 'not intending him for the bar, but, as was then a common practice, meaning to make the study of the law a part of his education.'—When he had attained his twenty-fourth year, he had the misfortune of losing his father: but this event, by making him independent, enabled him to engage in those pursuits, and to adopt that mode of life, which were best suited to his inclination.

'The strong and decided bent of his mind,' observes Lord M. 'had always been towards the Greek and Latin classics. These he preferred to every other sort of reading; and to his favourite authors he now applied himself with avidity, retiring from London to the house in which his family had very long resided in the Close of Salisbury. His application during fourteen or fifteen years to the best writers of antiquity

antiquity continued to be almost unremitting, and his industry was such as is not often exceeded. He rose always very early, frequently at four or five o'clock in the morning, especially during the winter, because he could then most effectually insure a command of time to himself.'

Though Mr. Harris afterward became so distinguished for his intimate acquaintance with, and attachment to, the Aristotelian philosophy, yet the following anecdote assures us that his study of the Stagirite did not commence very early:

'I have heard my father say, that it was not until many years after his retirement from London that he began to read Aristotle and his commentators, or to enquire, so deeply as he afterwards did, into the Greek philosophy. He had imbibed a prejudice, very common at that time even among scholars, that Aristotle was an obscure and unprofitable author, whose philosophy had been deservedly superseded by that of Mr. Locke; a notion which my father's own writings have since contributed to correct, with no small evidence and authority.'

Mr. Harris's fondness for the cause of literature did not detach him from more important pursuits; he acted regularly and assiduously as a magistrate for his own county, and gave 'in that capacity occasional proofs of a manly spirit and firmness, without which the mere formal discharge of magisterial duty is often useless and insufficient.'—His first literary production was printed in the year 1744, and contained three treatises, 1st. concerning Art,—2d. Music, Painting, and Poetry,—and 3d. on Happiness. We remember the pleasure which we received from the perusal of these essays, and particularly of the last; which appeared to us at that time, (and we have since seen no reason for altering our opinion,) to give a very satisfactory view of the Stoical system on that important topic; and Lord Monboddo, speaking of the Dialogue on *Art*, praises it as containing "the best specimen of the dividing, or diæretic manner, as the antients called it," that was to be found in any modern book with which he was acquainted.

In July 1745, Mr. Harris married Miss Elizabeth Clarke, daughter, and eventually heiress, of John Clarke, Esq. of Sandford near Bridgewater in the county of Somerset, by whom he had five children; two of these died at an early period; James, now Earl of Malmesbury, and two daughters, have survived their father.—In 1751, he published his *Hermes*, or a Philosophical Inquiry concerning Universal Grammar. Of this work we gave an account in our sixth volume, and we feel no inclination to retract the praise which we then bestowed; though we are aware that of late years the merit of this elaborate performance has been minutely examined, and

much questioned. Our opinion, however, is sanctioned by that of Bishop Lowth; who, on the subject of grammar, is *instar omnium.* "Those," says the learned prelate, "who would enter deeply into the subject of universal grammar, will find it fully and accurately handled, with the greatest acuteness of investigation, perspicuity of explanation, and elegance of method, in a treatise entitled Hermes, by James Harris, Esq. the most beautiful example of analysis that has been exhibited since the days of Aristotle."—We are informed, by the present noble editor, 'that what first led his father to a deep and accurate consideration of the principles of universal grammar, was a book which he held in high estimation, and was frequently quoted in his Hermes, the Minerva of Sanctius. To that writer he confesses himself indebted for abundance of valuable information; of which it appears (continues his Lordship) that he knew well how to profit, and to push his researches on the subject of grammar to a much greater length, by the help of his various and extensive erudition.'

We shall now present our readers with the following short, but interesting, account of the manner in which Mr. Harris usually passed his time in this part of his life:

'From the period of his marriage until the year 1761, my father continued to live entirely at Salisbury, except in the summer, when he sometimes retired to his house at Durnford near that city. It was there that he found himself most free from the interruption of business and company, and at leisure to compose the chief part of those works which were the result of his study at other seasons. His time was divided between the care of his family, in which he placed his chief happiness, his literary pursuits, and the society of his friends and neighbours, with whom he kept up a constant and cheerful intercourse. The superior taste and skill which he possessed in music, and his extreme fondness for hearing it, led him to attend to its cultivation in his native place with uncommon pains and success; insomuch that, under his auspices, not only the annual musical festival in Salisbury flourished beyond most institutions of the kind, but even the ordinary subscription-concerts were carried on, by his assistance and directions, with a spirit and effect seldom equalled out of the metropolis. Many of the beautiful selections made from the best Italian and German composers for these festivals and concerts, and adapted by my father sometimes to words selected from Scripture, or from Milton's Paradise Lost, sometimes to compositions of his own, have survived the occasions on which they were first produced, and are still in great estimation. Two volumes of these selections have been lately published by Mr. Corfe*, organist of Salisbury cathedral; the rest remain in MS. in possession of my family. His own house, in the mean time, was the frequent scene

* See M. Rev. vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 148.

of

of social and musical meetings; and I think I do not hazard too much in saying, that he contributed, both by his own conversation, and by the company which he often assembled at his house from various parts, to refine and improve the taste and manners of the place in which he resided.'

Mr. Harris was chosen a representative in parliament for the borough of Christ Church, in the year 1761, which seat he retained to the day of his death. In the following year, he accepted the office of one of the Lords of the Admiralty, whence he was promoted in 1763 to be a Lord of the Treasury: in 1774, he became Secretary and Comptroller to the Queen, and this appointment he held during the remainder of his life.

'Although assiduous in the discharge of his parliamentary duty, and occasionally taking a share in debates, Mr. Harris never contracted any violent spirit of party. He abhorred faction of every kind; nor did he ever relinquish, for public business, those still more interesting pursuits which had made the delight and occupation of his earlier years. If they were somewhat intermitted during the sitting of parliament, he renewed them with increased relish and satisfaction on his return into the country. Those who saw him in London, partaking with cheerfulness and enjoyment of a varied and extensive society, and frequenting dramatic and musical entertainments, while, during his stay in Salisbury, he always exercised a respectable, but well-regulated hospitality, were surprized that he could have found time to compose and publish in 1775 another learned work. It contains, under the title of Philosophical Arrangements*, a part only of a larger work that he had meditated, but did not finish, on the Peripatetic logic. So far as relates to the *arrangement* of ideas, it is complete; but it has other objects also in view. It combats, with great force and ability, the atheistical doctrines of chance and materialism.'

The last work, which proceeded from the pen of this ingenious writer, was his *Philological Enquiries*; on which we bestowed, in our 66th volume, a tribute of sincere and merited praise. We then made an observation, the justice of which has since frequently occurred to us, "that the character of the author stands forth to view in every page of his performance; marked with peculiarities indeed, but peculiarities of the most amiable and respectable kind. As we read, we seem listening to the conversation of an elegant scholar, a gentleman, a person of the greatest candour, sincerity, and worth; desirous of impressing his own liberal sentiments on the minds of others." Of this last production of Mr. Harris's pen, Lord Malmesbury observes:

'It is a more popular work than any of his former ones, and contains rather a summary of the conclusions to which the philosophy

* See M. Rev. vol. liv. p. 244.

of the ancients had conducted them in their critical inquiries, than a regular and perfect system. The principles on which those conclusion depend are therefore omitted, as being of a more abstruse nature than was agreeable to his design; which was to teach by illustration and example, not by strict demonstration. Indeed, this publication appears to have been meant not only as a retrospective view of those studies which exercised his mind in the full vigour of his life, but likewise as a monument of his affection towards many of his intimate friends. I cannot therefore but consider it as a pleasing proof of a mind retaining, at an advanced age, a considerable degree of its former energy and activity, together with, what is still more rarely to be found, an undiminished portion of its candour and benevolence.

'Before this last volume was entirely concluded, my father's health had evidently begun to be very much impaired. He never enjoyed a robust constitution; but for some time, towards the end of his life, the infirmities under which he laboured had gradually increased. His family at length became apprehensive of a decline, symptoms of which were very apparent, and by none more clearly perceived than by himself. This was evident from a variety of little circumstances, but by no means from any impatience or fretfulness, nor yet from any dejection of spirits, such as are frequently incident to extreme weakness of body, especially when it proves to be the forerunner of approaching dissolution. On the contrary, the same equable and placid temper which had distinguished him throughout his whole life, the same tender and affectionate attention to his surrounding family, which he had unceasingly manifested while in health, continued, without the smallest change or abatement, to the very last; displaying a mind thoroughly at peace with itself, and able, without disturbance or dismay, to contemplate the awful prospect of futurity!'

How exalted is the praise attributed in this passage, and how elegantly simple is the language in which it is conveyed!—Mr. Harris died on the 22d of December 1780, in the 72d year of his age.

> "Peace to the mem'ry of a man of worth,
> A man of letters, and of manners too,
> Of manners sweet as virtue always wears,
> When gay good-nature dresses her in smiles."

We shall terminate our extracts with the character of this amiable scholar, as drawn by his son; which, we think, cannot be considered in the light of panegyric, though delineated by a partial hand. What Mr. Gibbon says on the subject of dedications is in some measure applicable to biography. He observes that "there are but two kinds of dedications, which can do honour either to the patron or author:—with the first, the present subject has no kind of connection:—"the other sort," continues the historian, "is yet more honourable. It is dictated by the heart, and offered to some person who is dear to us, because

because he ought to be so. It is an opportunity we embrace with pleasure of making public those sentiments of esteem, of friendship, of gratitude, or of all together, which we really feel, and which therefore we desire should be known." If Lord Malmesbury had spoken in higher terms of commendation than the unbiassed opinion of the world could approve and sanction, yet even then it must be remembered that Mr. Harris " is dear to him, because he ought to be so." In the motive, and in the relationship, we should acknowlege more than an excuse.

' The distinction (says Lord M.) by which my father was most generally known, while living, and by which he is likely to survive to posterity, is that of a man of learning. His profound knowledge of Greek, which he applied more successfully, perhaps, than any modern writer has done, to the study and explanation of ancient philosophy, arose from an early and intimate acquaintance with the excellent poets and historians in that language. They, and the best writers of the Augustan age, were his constant and never-failing recreation. By his familiarity with them, he was enabled to enliven and illustrate his deeper and more abstruse speculations; as every page almost of these volumes will abundantly testify. But his attainments were not confined to ancient philosophy and classical learning. He possessed likewise a general knowledge of modern history, with a very distinguishing taste in the fine arts, in one of which, as before observed, he was an eminent proficient. His singular industry empowered him to make these various acquisitions without neglecting any of the duties which he owed to his family, his friends, or his country. I am in possession of such proofs, besides those already given to the public, of my father's laborious study and reflexion, as, I apprehend, are very rarely to be met with. Not only was he accustomed, through a long series of years, to make copious extracts from the different books which he read, and to write critical remarks and conjectures on many of the passages extracted, but he was also in the habit of regularly committing to writing such reflections as arose out of his study, which evince a mind carefully disciplined, and anxiously bent on the attainment of self-knowledge, and self-government. And yet, though habituated to deep thinking and laborious reading, he was generally cheerful, even to playfulness. There was no pedantry in his manners or conversation, nor was he ever seen either to display his learning with ostentation, or to treat with slight or superciliousness those less informed than himself. He rather sought to make them partakers of what he knew, than to mortify them by a parade of his own superiority. Nor had he any of that miserable fastidiousness about him which too often disgraces men of learning, and prevents their being amused or interested, at least their choosing to appear so, by common performances, and common events.

' It was with him a maxim, that the most difficult, and infinitely the preferable, sort of criticism, both in literature and in the arts, was that which consists in finding out beauties, rather than defects;

and although he certainly wanted not judgment to distinguish and to prefer superior excellence of any kind, he was too reasonable to expect it should very often occur, and too wise to allow himself to be disgusted at common weakness or imperfection. He thought, indeed, that the very attempt to please, however it might fall short of its aim, deserved some return of thanks, some degree of approbation; and that to endeavour at being pleased by such efforts, was due to justice, to good-nature, and to good-sense.

'Far, at the same time, from that presumptuous conceit which is solicitous about mending others, and that moroseness which feeds its own pride by dealing general censure, he cultivated to the utmost that great moral wisdom, by which we are made humane, gentle, and forgiving; thankful for the blessings of life, acquiescent in the afflictions we endure, and submissive to all the dispensations of providence. He detested the gloom of superstition, and the persecuting spirit by which it is so often accompanied: but he abhorred still more the baneful and destructive system of modern philosophy; and from his early solicitude to inspire me with a hatred of it, it would almost seem that he foresaw its alarming approach and fatal progress. There is no obligation which I acknowledge with more thankfulness; none that I shall more anxiously endeavour to confer upon my own children, from a thorough conviction of its value and importance.

'My father's affection to every part of his family was exemplary and uniform. As a husband, a parent, a master, he was ever kind and indulgent; and it deserves to be mentioned to his honour, that he thought it no interruption of his graver occupations, himself to instruct his daughters, by exercising them daily both in reading and composition, and writing essays for their improvement, during many of their younger years. No man was a better judge of what belonged to female education, and the elegant accomplishments of the sex, or more disposed to set a high value upon them. But he had infinitely more at heart, that his children should be early habituated to the practice of religion and morality, and deeply impressed with their true principles. To promote this desirable end, he was assiduous both by instruction and example: being himself a constant attendant upon public worship, and enforcing that great duty upon every part of his family. The deep sense of moral and religious obligation which was habitual to him, and those benevolent feelings which were so great a happiness to his family and friends, had the same powerful influence over his public, as his private life. He had an ardent zeal for the prosperity of his country, whose real interests he well understood; and in his parliamentary conduct he proved himself a warm friend to the genuine principles of religious and civil liberty, as well as a firm supporter of every branch of our admirable constitution.'

Though we have trespassed at some length, in this article, on the attention of our readers, yet we feel confident that the excellence of the character delineated, and the merit of the performance, will more than justify us. As we entertain the highest

highest respect for the memory of Mr. Harris, we are happy in this opportunity of testifying it; and, as we have now derived unalloyed satisfaction from the perusal of his memoirs, we were desirous of imparting to others some of the pleasure which we have experienced. The noble editor must by no means be forgotten on this occasion: he has performed a delicate task with great ability; and, indeed, we know not which most to applaud, the ardour and tenderness of his filial sentiments, the justice and propriety of his observations, or the simplicity and true pathos of the narrative.

These volumes are very handsomely printed, and are decorated with two portraits of the author: the one taken when he was a young man, the second engraved from a model made by Gosset when Mr. Harris was at the age of sixty-seven years. The prints, also, which were prefixed to the respective works as they were published, are here preserved. Vol. I. contains the Three Treatises, and Hermes. Vol. II. the Philosophical Arrangements, and the Philological Enquiries.—The work is dedicated to the King in a strain of good sense, and in terms of manly but respectful freedom. S. R.

ART. II. *The Lamentation.* A Poem. In two Parts. To which are added other Miscellaneous Pieces, in Blank Verse and Rhyme. Crown 8vo. pp. 200. 6s. Boards. White. 1801.

MYTHOLOGY tells us that, in days of yore, the man who slept on the top of Parnassus became a poet:—he slept, he waked,

"And lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came."

Now whether this part of the mountain has been swallowed up by an earthquake, or worn out by continual usage; whether the identical spot, the once favoured soil of inspiration, be so overgrown by weeds as to be rendered impervious; or whether the would-be Bard—now anticipates his nap, and falls into his trance in the middle or at the bottom of the hill;—may be matter worthy of the investigation of the speculative inquirer, who feels himself anxiously solicitous to account for the degeneracy of the race of poets. To us these desultory ideas have occurred from venerable recollection of the sublime worthies of antient days: but we are ready to pay the due tribute of praise to all our modern Bards, whose merits we would not appreciate by the rules of invidious comparison; and we shall readily allow that, if the poems before us do not rank in the first class of excellence, they are yet far above mediocrity.

The

The poetical oglio here presented to us supplies a variety that may suit every taste; and the author tells us, in his preface, that his subjects have been produced under the very different impressions of joy and sorrow. Hence flow Lamentations, Elegies, Pastorals, Songs, and Sonnets.—The volume opens with the poem which, as being most considerable in size, gives title to the publication. Here we travel through the most dreary and gloomy paths of human life. The muse addresses an invocation to melancholy; and the pensive mind, obedient to the summons, accompanies her to the end of the journey. This poem, however, is correctly moral and religious, and will meet the approbation of the reflecting reader. The destructive vice of gaming is reprobated with a virtuous indignation:

'O love of play! thou certain source of woe,
Thou ceaseless torturer of honest hearts!
Thou cause unfailing of tormenting thought,
How many noble souls hast thou destroy'd!'

In page 42, we have a pleasing illustration of the superior state of happiness resulting from the retired life of virtuous innocence, when contrasted with the scenes of vice and pampered luxury:

'O then for ever let us fly those scenes!
Which vice and odious cunning represent
On the throng'd theatre of human life:
For 'tis in cottages, and not in courts,
At frugal tables, not at sumptuous feasts,
In still retirement, not in busy crowds,
That virtue and that happiness reside.'

From the miscellaneous compositions, were it not that our boundary is circumscribed, we could select more than one poem which pleases us:—the following, on Lelia, obtains a preference:

'O had I Titian's skill to trace
A picture without fault or flaw,
A perfect form or perfect face,
I then would Lelia's portrait draw.

'Or had I Milton's pow'r of song
Where strength with melody combin'd,
I'd sing in numbers soft, yet strong,
The nobler graces of her mind.

'For none but Titian's art could paint
Her eyes, her mouth, her shape, her air;
His art alone could represent
So sweet a form, a face so fair.

'An

And Milton's Muse alone could tell
Her graceful ease, her polish'd art,
Her soul where all attractions dwell,
And prostrate lays the proudest heart.'

Among the Songs, we find several that are sprightly and convivial; and the poet seems to celebrate the juice of the grape and the charms of his mistress equally *con amore*. His devotion to both is pleasantly manifested in the following lines; though here the little blind Deity is a more principal object of worship than the jolly God:

'You ask for a song, and, by Jove!
I'll sing one as well as I'm able;
The theme I have chosen is Love,
A theme known to all at this table;
For where is the soul that escapes
The subtle and searching sensation?
It comes in all manners and shapes,
And fills the whole range of creation.

'It spares neither aged nor young,
But travels the blessed world over,
And though never told by the tongue,
The eyes are still sure to discover.
'Tis th' essence of spiritual flame,
The source of each tender *emotion*,
A feeling that fills the whole frame,
And speaks in each feature and *motion*.

'It warms ev'ry thought of the soul,
It opes a new world to the senses;
Fair fancy it frees from controul,
And breaks down stupidity's fences.
It opens the mind of the sage;
The growth of bright genius it quickens,
Gives warmth to the coldness of age,
And health to the bosom that sickens.

'If sometimes the source of much pain,
Its joys in proportion are greater;
And though long we suffer in vain,
Reward will come sooner or later.
Thus Phyllis once broke my repose,
But Myra is not so hard hearted,
Her kindness has banish'd my woes,
And cur'd all the wounds that once smarted.

'Now, as for myself, I declare,
The passion I ne'er will let languish;
For sweet are the smiles of the fair,
Tho' frowns are my torment and anguish.

O those

O those who have known well as I,
The value of Love's sacred pleasures,
Find charms in the glance of an eye,
Surpassing the world's richest treasures.

'The sex, then, in bumpers I'll toast,
While wine I can purchase or borrow;
For comfort without them were lost,
And life would be nothing but sorrow.
They e'er shall be prais'd by my pen;
Their healths I will drink in my glasses;
For who cares a straw for the men,
So long as he's lov'd by the lasses?'

We are glad to leave the author merrier at the conclusion of his volume than we find him at the beginning: but, before we part, we must comply with our usual custom of adding a few mild strictures, where they are requisite. In his blank verse, he is too frequently prosaic: *e. g.*

'I early rose, yet found my friend was up
At work already in a neighbouring field.'—
'The cloth remov'd, an hour was spent in chat.'
'Happy I am, as one descending in the vale of years
Can well expect to be.'

In his rhyme, the poet's ear has often failed to perceive the effect that the simple transposition of a word produces, in the harmony of numbers: while his alliterations are still more obviously harsh and unpleasing; as in the line, page 189, in a poem on sleep:

'*Which—whilst waking.*'

It may be said that such faults are trifles: but, with respect to a writer's reputation,

——"*Hæ nugæ seria ducent*
In mala derisum semel exceptumque sinistrè."

Mr. Moy.

ART. III. Mr. Marsh's *Translation of Professor* Michaelis's *Introduction to the New Testament:* Vols. III. and IV.

[*Article continued from p.* 405. *Rev. Dec.*]

IN that part of this work which relates to St. Luke's Gospel, the Professor discusses, at length, the various questions which have arisen respecting the life and character of this evangelist, the time and the place at which he wrote his Gospel, the person to whom it was addressed, and the motives which induced him to compose it. The present author thinks that this book is not wholly free from errors. He says that Luke was neither an Apostle, nor an eye witness to the facts

which he relates; and hence he infers that when St. Luke differs from St. Matthew or St. John, who *were* eye witnesses, the mistakes are on the part of the former. He points out some of these inaccuracies; and on one of them he makes the following remarks:

'In the short extract, which St. Luke has given from the sermon on the mount, he has inverted one of the precepts delivered by Christ. According to Matth. v. 40. Christ gave the following command, Τῳ θελοντι σοι κριθηναι, και χιτωνα σε λαβειν, αφες αυτῳ και το ἱματιον: but on the contrary in St. Luke's Gospel, ch. vi. 29, the command is given thus: Απο τε αιροντος σε το ἱματιον και τον χιτωνα μη κωλυσης. To those who are unacquainted with the Jewish laws, the form in which St. Luke has recorded this precept, will appear to be the most natural, because an outward garment (ἱματιον) must be taken off before the under garment (χιτων). But Christ alluded in this instance to a Jewish law, according to which a creditor could summon a debtor before a court of justice, and if he were unable to pay, could claim from him his under garment: but the outward garment was sacred, and could not be seized, even if the wearer had pledged it as surety for a debt. The meaning therefore of the precept, as recorded by St. Matthew, is this: that if any one has a claim upon us, we should rather give up even more than the laws require, than dispute that, which can with justice be demanded. This is a very rational precept: but in the form in which St. Luke has delivered it, and in the connection in which he has related it, the precept implies that not even robbers ought to be resisted, and hence objections have been made to the Christian religion. But the objections will cease to be of weight, if we admit, that St. Luke misunderstood the precept.'

We are sorry to inform our readers that Mr. Marsh, in his character of annotator, accompanies Professor Michaelis no farther than the end of St. Luke's Gospel. We copy, in his own words, the reasons assigned by him (in his preface) for this circumstance:

'The translation was finished before the close of 1795, when I began to draw up a commentary on our author's text, as I had done in the preceding volumes. But as I proceeded with the Notes on the three first Gospels, I perceived the necessity of entering into a minute investigation of their origin and composition, which gave rise to the Dissertation, printed in Vol. III. P. ii.: and this Dissertation was not finished before the beginning of 1798. It was at that time, that my attention began to be directed to a totally different subject: the calumnies, which were then incessantly uttered against Great Britain, both at home and abroad, provoked me to attempt a confutation of them: and the volumes, which I accordingly published, again employed an interval of nearly two years. Toward the end of 1799, I returned to the study of theology: I began to collect materials for observations on the other books of the New Testament: and I intended to have treated them in the same manner,

manner, as I had done the three first Gospels, when a new interruption took place in March 1800. From the University of Leipzig, where I then resided, I returned to England, in consequence of an invitation, which I could not refuse: and as the completion of my original plan, with regard to Michaelis's Introduction, was thus deferred to an unlimited time, I determined to print the remainder of the translation without further delay. In so doing, I hope I shall not incur the censure of the public: as it is certainly more desirable to have the work of Michaelis complete, though the whole is not accompanied with Notes, than to wait several years longer for the completion of the work, merely for the sake of some additional observations by the translator.'

The Professor's remarks on the Gospel of St. John are well worthy of his reader's attention. He contends that the Apostle wrote this work to confute the Gnostics and Sabians; and he shews, at some length, the manner in which they *are* confuted by him. In order to do this, he states succinctly the tenets of those sects of Christians, and gives a short commentary on different texts in St. John's Gospel which, in his opinion, apply to them. One of his illustrations is so new, whether or not it may be deemed perfectly satisfactory, that we shall transcribe it:

'In St. John, ch. v. 17. a conversation is related between Christ and the Jews, who accused him of having violated the sabbath, because he had performed miracles on that day. To this charge, Christ might have answered that the performance of a miracle was no more a violation of the sabbath than the performance of religious ceremonies: but he answered in a different manner, and said, 'My Father worketh hitherto, and I work.' The word 'hitherto' refers to the time when God ceased to work, namely on the first sabbath, when God rested after he had finished the work of the creation. This rest, which Moses ascribes to the Creator, admits of no other explanation, than that he ceased to operate immediately on the world, and that he left nature to take the course, which he had originally directed. Hence every miracle, which is a deviation from the course of nature, may be considered as a departure from the rule, which God prescribed to himself, and as a kind of violation of the first sabbath, because a miracle implies God's interference. The meaning therefore of Christ's answer is the following. 'God himself sometimes breaketh the great Sabbath, of which your sabbath is only a type. After he had finished the work of the creation, he rested indeed on the seventh day: yet he still worketh, and I work with him.' Whoever speaks in this manner, and describes himself as breaking, with God, the great sabbath, which commenced when the creation was completed, represents himself as the Creator of heaven and earth, who rested on the seventh day.'

The Professor says little on the Acts of the Apostles, but we believe that the reader will be highly pleased with the

following observations on St. Luke's style and mode of narration:

'In general, St. Luke's style in the Acts of the Apostles is much purer than that of most other books of the New Testament, especially in the speeches delivered by St. Paul at Athens and before the Roman governors, which contain passages superior to any thing even in the Epistle to the Hebrews, though the language of this Epistle is preferable in other respects to that of any other book in the New Testament. But the Acts of the Apostles are by no means free from Hebraisms: and even in the purest parts, which are the speeches of St. Paul, we still find the language of a native Jew.

'It deserves particularly to be remarked that St. Luke has well supported the character of each person, whom he has introduced as delivering a public harangue, and has very faithfully and happily preserved the manner of speaking, which was peculiar to each of his orators. The speeches of St. Peter are recorded by St. Luke with the same simplicity as that in which they were delivered, and they are devoid of all those ornaments, which we usually find in the orations of the Greeks and Romans. The speeches of St. Paul, which were delivered before a Jewish assembly, are not very different in their manner from those of St. Peter: and they are wholly dissimilar to those, which the same Apostle delivered before an heathen audience, especially in Acts, xiii. 16—41. where St. Paul introduces the principal subject of his discourse by a long periphrasis, which would have been neither instructive nor entertaining in any other place, than a Jewish synagogue. The speech delivered by the martyr Stephen, in the seventh chapter of the Acts, is again of a different description. It is a learned discourse, pronounced by a speaker, who was totally unacquainted with the art of oratory. Stephen spake without any preparation, and though he had certainly a particular object in view, to which the several parts of his discourse were directed, yet it is difficult to discover this object, because his materials are not regularly disposed. It is true, that he was interrupted, and was prevented from finishing his harangue: but an orator, who is accustomed to speak in public, and has learnt methodical arrangement, will discover even at the commencement of his oration the purport of his discourse. In Stephen's speech we meet with numerous digressions, and literary remarks, of which we cannot perceive the tendency. For instance, he has a remark, which is at variance with the Hebrew text, and favours another reading, or if not, it favours a mystical exposition of the common reading, that Abraham did not depart from Haran, till after his father's death: and he differs from the Seventy in interpreting קשיטה not by 'lambs,' but by 'a silver coin.' The same character appears throughout the whole of Stephen's discourse: but a more minute examination of it would be foreign to the present purpose.

'Since then the various speakers, who are introduced in the Acts of the Apostles, uniformly preserve their proper characters, St. Luke must have received very accurate information. Yet many

of

of these speeches were delivered, not in the Greek language, as they are recorded by St. Luke, but in Chaldee, the language of Palestine. Nor is it probable, that any of the persons, who were present at the time, when they were delivered, committed them to writing, if we except the speech of Stephen. My reason for thinking it probable that St. Luke had a copy of Stephen's speech, is, that it contains some mistakes of memory, and some inaccurate expositions, which St. Luke himself must have known to be such, but which he retained, because he found them in his copy. Perhaps this copy was delivered to him by St. Paul, who was not only present at Stephen's speech, but was at that time a zealous adversary of the Christians; and being at the same time learned in the law, was able as well as willing to detect whatever mistakes might be made by the speaker.

'Lastly, the speeches delivered by St. Paul before assemblies, which were accustomed to Grecian oratory, are of a totally different description from any of the preceding. It is true, that they are neither adorned with the flowers of rhetoric, nor are even exempt from such expressions as betray a native Jew: but the language is pointed and energetic, and the materials are not only well selected, but judiciously arranged. The speech which St. Paul delivered at Athens, and the two which he held before the Roman governors of Judæa, are proofs of this assertion. Yet St. Luke appears to have given only an abstract, and not the whole of St. Paul's speeches; for the Apostle in the defence, which he made before Felix, must certainly have said more than is recorded by St. Luke, ch. xxiv. 12, 13. unless we suppose that he merely denied the charge, which had been laid to him, without confuting it. However he has certainly shewn great judgment in these abstracts: for, if he has not always retained the very words of St. Paul, he has adopted such as well suited the polished audience, before which the Apostle spake.'

We now come to Professor Michaelis's introduction to the Epistles. To each of them he assigns one or more prefatory chapters, in which he discusses the principal questions relative to the time and place at which they were written, the supposed authors of them, and the persons to whom they were addressed; sometimes, also, he gives a kind of analysis of their contents. The reader will be particularly pleased with his analysis of the epistle to the Romans; and his observations on the state of the Christian community at Corinth, on the notions entertained by the Jews concerning justification and obedience to the Roman Emperors, on the style of the epistle to the Hebrews, on the internal marks from which an inference may be drawn either in favor of or against the opinion that St. Paul was the author of that epistle, and on the alledged contradiction between the doctrine of St. Paul and St. James respecting faith and good works, are excellent. His verbal criticisms of the text are also very curious.—To his remarks on the Epistles of St. Paul, he prefixes an introductory chapter, treating

treating of the order in which the epistles were written; and he contends that St. Paul dictated his epistles, and wrote a greater number than those which are now extant. A particular chapter on this Apostle's character and mode of life is also given: but here we were greatly disappointed: instead of the full and judicious account of his character as a man, an Apostle, and a writer, which we expected, we find only a very short inquiry whether he was an impostor, an enthusiast, or a messenger from heaven; with some observations on his profession or trade. In opposition to the universal opinion of antient and modern writers, the Professor asserts that Paul's occupation was that of a mechanical instrument maker; on the ground that, according to Julius Pollux, *σκηνοποιος* in the language of the old comedy was equivalent to *μηχανοποιος*.

Similar prefatory matter is prefixed to each of the other epistles; and at the end of the introduction to the first epistle of St. John we find a dissertation on the 1st John, v. 7. or the celebrated verse of the three heavenly witnesses. Here we particularly feel the want of Mr. Marsh's annotations: because, since the publication of Michaelis's work, the authenticity of this verse has undergone so thorough an investigation, so much new and important matter respecting it has been brought forwards, and the old discussion has been placed in such a variety of new lights, that this author's statement of the arguments for and against the authenticity of the verse is very imperfect; and a note containing the requisite supplementary information would therefore have been highly acceptable. The subject is now exhausted: but a complete history of the controversy would be both entertaining and instructive. It might be divided into three stages; the first commencing with Erasmus's doubt of its authenticity, and ending with Sandius's attack on it: the second, the period at which it was brought before the public in the *Journal Britannique*; and the third, comprehending Mr. Gibbon's note respecting it, which provoked Mr. Archdeacon Travis to stand forwards in its defence, and Mr. Porson's and Mr. Marsh's admirable replies. We doubt not that a work giving an account of the various publications which made their appearance on this occasion, and exhibiting the complection which the argument assumed from time to time, would be favourably received both here and on the continent; and we earnestly recommend the undertaking to Mr. Marsh:—the execution of it would confer an additional obligation on his German and English friends.

No part of these volumes is more ably executed, than that which relates to the apocalypse. Fearing that his indecisive tone in treating the subject might give offence to a great por-

tion of his readers, Professor Michaelis shelters himself under the authority and example of Luther; who, in the preface to the edition of his Bible in 1522, denied the authenticity of this book in the strongest terms; and, in that of 1534, in terms less decisive, but perhaps not less expressive of his real sentiments, he again assured the public that he was not convinced of its being a canonical work. Michaelis begins by citing two passages from the writings of Eusebius, from which he concludes that this antient prelate had not been able to obtain any historical certainty on the subject, and therefore took a middle road, neither pronouncing it a forgery nor ascribing it to St. John the Apostle. He then examines the opinions of earlier writers; and he concludes his account of them by shewing that, if we place in one scale the few but important writers who either knew nothing of the apocalypse or rejected it, and in the other scale, the more numerous but less important writers who received it, the balance will remain on the same equipoise in which Eusebius himself seems to have regarded it.—He next proceeds to the opinions of ecclesiastical writers who lived since the time of Eusebius. It was received by Jerom and Augustin; and to their admission of it, the Professor ascribes its universal acceptation both in Africa and the West of Europe. In 633, it was pronounced canonical by the fourth council of Toledo; from that time, all doubts of its authenticity vanished in the Latin church; and it remained unimpeached till its authority was called in question by Luther. From Jerom's declaration in an epistle to Dardanus, "*de Joannis Apocalypsi apud orientales admodum dubitatur*," the author infers that, at the end of the 4th century, it was almost universally considered as spurious by the eastern church; and from that period, he says, it lost instead of gaining ground: but respecting the opinion of the Greek church concerning it, either at the time of her ultimate separation from the Latin church, or in her present state, he is wholly silent. This we cannot but consider as a deficiency.

The learned author now proceeds to shew the reception experienced by the apocalypse from the Syrian church; which, he says, comprehended all the Christians who resided in Syria, Assyria, Mesopotamia, Arabia, Persia, Tartary, and China. There a difference of opinion respecting it seems to have prevailed: but it was received, he tells us, by the Ægyptian Christians. The Lutheran church has never pronounced either for or against its authenticity; and therefore, like Luther's last preface, it leaves the decision of the question to every man's private judgment. The council of Trent has pronounced it to be canonical; and the church of England also

ranks

ranks it among the canonical books: but neither of these circumstances is mentioned by Michaelis.

The Professor next considers the nature and completion of the prophecies in the Ayocalypse, on which he makes several just remarks. With him we think that there are strong grounds for contending that, if this book must be considered as a prophetical work, it related chiefly (we had almost said, wholly,) to events which were to happen shortly after the delivery of the prophecy; and that much in it is to be considered as poetical imagery. He adds that it is a sublime, animated, and affecting composition:—it must, however, be allowed to abound with harsh constructions and Hebraisms.—Professor Michaelis asserts it to be an undeniable fact, that the style of the Apocalypse is very different from that of St. John's Gospel. While the author of the former hurries us down enchanted torrents which carry every thing before them, the writer of the Gospel of St. John glides (according to the present critic,) down a clear rivulet, which flows without rapidity or violence. This difference of style, however, may be ascribed by some to the different nature of the compositions; the Gospel being a mere narrative of facts, requiring only a plain equable style, while the Apocalypse is a prophetic vision, prefigurating future events by the wildest and most singular imagery.—The various expositions of this book next attract the author's attention; and he divides them into three classes; those by which its prophecies are referred to the Pope and the church of Rome; those which confine them to the first three centuries; and those which make them relate solely to the destruction of Jerusalem. He omits the systems of the expositors of the church of Rome, who refer many of the prophecies to the reformation: but he should have observed that, however the expositors who do not confine the prophecies to the destruction of Jerusalem, or to the first three centuries, may disagree in other respects, almost all of them concur in referring the ultimate completion of the prophecies to the latter end of the world. As to his own opinion; he affirms, in the most general terms, that of all the commentaries which he has seen, not one has given him satisfaction; and he confesses that, from all these commentaries put together, he is unable to make one which is better.

To all present and future expositors of the Apocalypse, we recommend the perusal of the following short passage; with which we shall conclude our extracts from this work:

"Each man imagines that he alone has discovered the true meaning, which had escaped the penetration of those who had gone before him: and after having read the various commentaries, which have

been written on the Apocalypse, one is almost inclined to believe that each commentator is so far in the right, when he says that all others are in the wrong. I remember soon after the foundation of the University of Gottingen, that Heumann and Oporin read lectures there at the same time on the Apocalypse. Oporin, a man of great modesty and diffidence, spoke of Heumann's learning and general good sense in terms of the highest approbation: but always made an exception to the lectures on the Apocalpyse, saying, 'that is Heumann's weak side.' Heumann, on the other hand, in many respects did justice to Oporin: but when he came to speak of the Apocalypse, he lamented that Oporin should attempt to read lectures on a book, of which he did not comprehend the meaning.'

Among the biblical works of our times, the present publication (including the former part of it) will certainly hold a conspicuous rank. The author evidently devoted to it an uncommon portion of extensive and curious learning, great talents for discrimination, and much good sense. He was far from being defective in judgment, but he sometimes suffered it to be overpowered by his imagination, and he is therefore occasionally a dupe to his ingenuity. His moderation and candor deserve the highest praise. Between all denominations of Christians, he anxiously endeavours to hold the balance with a very steady hand; and in all that he says, he may be trusted with equal safety by the Roman Catholic, the Calvinist, and the Lutheran. His style, however, is prolix; his manner of treating his subject is somewhat too digressive; and his work evidently requires a reader who possesses much previous information. A considerable part of it is employed on verbal criticism, in which his greatest strength consisted; and what he says on this subject is in general very interesting.—On the whole, we doubt whether an introduction to any part of the sacred writings has yet appeared, which contains more valuable matter, or tends more to facilitate the explanation of the sacred text. The translation is also extremely well executed; and the annotations added by Mr. Marsh are replete with learning and observation. The pleasure, therefore, which we have found on the perusal of them, makes us regret, very deeply, that they accompany a part only of the work.

In a future number, we shall review Mr. Marsh's dissertation on the origin of the Gospels of St. Matthew, St. Mark, and St. Luke, which he has annexed to the 3d vol. of his translation; and which, we think, the reader will find to be one of the most interesting productions that have yet illustrated biblical literature.

Butler.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IV. *The Natural History of Volcanoes:* including Submarine Volcanoes, and other Analogous Phenomena. By the Abbé Ordinaire, formerly Canon of St. Amable at Riom in Auvergne. Translated from the Original French Manuscript. By R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. pp. 328. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

AT the commencement of this entertaining and (in certain respects) instructive work, the author observes that mountains in general contain large chasms; that they differ from one another in their internal structure; that the same mountain consists of various substances; and that in some, Pyrites are found in abundance. From the well known properties of these substances, as also from the remarkable experiment made with sulphur and filings of iron by Lemery, the Abbé Ordinaire (like many others who have written on this subject) is of opinion that the burning of a mountain may often be caused by these minerals, and sometimes by conflagrations of vapours pent in very deep subterraneous caverns; 'for then (says he) it is possible that flames, so kindled in caverns situated at the base of a mountain charged with all the necessary materials, should set it on fire and render it volcanic.'

In the succeeding chapter, the Abbé proceeds to make observations on the craters of volcanoes, and on the manner in which their contraction is effected.

Chapter 4. gives an account of the mountain situated in the country of the Baschirs Mursalarskis, called Kargousch—Kougisch; and which belongs to the Ouralian chain. It has been mentioned by some authors as a volcano: but, according to Dr. Pallas, it is only in a superficial state of combustion, which originated (if the account of the natives may be credited) from a very large and lofty pine at the foot of the centre hill, which was struck by lightning.

The chapters into which this volume is divided are very numerous, and therefore very brief: but, as the matter of them is indicated in a prefixed table of contents, we shall be able to give a concise and yet satisfactory view of a considerable portion of the work by transcribing the heads of several of them:

'V. Of internal permanent fires, commonly called central fires. Proofs of their existence. These fires the most common cause of earthquakes. The formation of a volcano would be useful in some places. Central fires may cause the burning of a mountain. To them is owing the phenomenon of the *Phlegræi Campi.*

'VI. Are all mountains produced by subterranean fires? Are not the burning mountains at least produced by them? Proofs of the conflagration being posterior to the formation of the mountain.

 'VII. Are

'VII. Are all volcanoes formed under the sea? The reasons that have given rise to this hypothesis discussed. The characteristics that distinguish volcanoes from the general subterranean fires.

'VIII. All volcanoes above the sea occupy lofty heights. Their elevation is still more evident in islands. Of the fires formed at the foot of a volcano. The cause of the elevation of volcanoes on land.

'IX. The volcanoes of the Moon have eruptions equal to those of the volcanoes of our globe. That planet abounds with very high mountains.

'X. The striking contrast between the great elevation of the volcanoes on land, and the lowness of the submarine volcanoes.

'XI. Islands rendered uninhabitable by their volcanoes. The singular state of Iceland, in respect to its fires, and the heat of its waters. The means of discovering the cause of the heat of hot springs. These waters begin to boil in less time than common cold water.

'XII. Volcanoes are not vents for a grand reservoir of fire in the centre of the globe. The astonishing quantity of the fires of Kamtchatka.

'XIII. Volcanoes render the places around them fertile and healthy. The danger of their vicinity.

'XIV. What are the causes of the convulsions of a volcano? How do those causes act? Their effects upon the mountain, upon the adjacent places, and often at a very great distance.

'XV. The sea, when near, partakes the motions of the earth. Prodigious oscillation of the sea at Awatcha. Illusion experienced by the people of Naples in 1779. The eruption of a volcano puts an end to the great conflict of nature.

'XVI. The eruption of a volcano one of the grandest sights a man can behold. An idea of it. What causes it? The overspreading of the burning matter at the top of the column. Its whole form. The fall of the ejected substances. The prodigious distance to which they are sometimes carried.

'XVII. Of the dry fog in 1783. It did not proceed either from the convulsions in Calabria, or from those in Iceland. The opinion of the Abbé Bertholon of the cause of that phenomenon.

'XVIII. Of the nature of the substances ejected at the time of an eruption. Of the lava. Of the cause of its overflow. The manner in which it is disgorged.

'XIX. The incredible quantity of lava that issues from a volcano. The immense void it must leave. The principal fiery pits of volcanoes must have horizontal branches.

'XX. The crater of a volcano sometimes vomits boiling water. Whence does the water proceed? Of the water-volcano of St. Jago de Guatimala.

'XXI. Nature proceeds uniformly in the discharge from volcanoes. Wherever the lava flows, it creates a sterility of an indefinite duration. Quarries opened in the lava. The variety of colours in the lava. Vitrified masses most common near certain volcanoes.

'XXII. Volcanoes become extinct, from the mines being exhausted; from the falling of the summit; from the rending of the sides

of

of the mountain; from the sinking of the mountain itself into its own abyss; from the entire inundation of the reservoir of fire, and from its being dried up.

'XXIII. The earth has been desolated by a great number of volcanoes. The probable cause of the extinction of those in the islands of the Grecian Archipelago.

'XXIV. The Giants' Causeway. Its wonderful formation. Various opinions respecting its origin.'

The general remarks on the eruption of a volcano, in chap. xvi., form an interesting scene; which is also closed in a singular manner:

'§ 56. Let the reader figure to himself Vesuvius near four thousand feet high, Etna which is more than twelve thousand, Pichinca which is fifteen thousand, Cotopaxis or Antisana, which are eighteen thousand; or, in fine, the insular volcano we have already mentioned, which was thought to exceed Chinboraço, and which, were it only equal to it, would still be nineteen thousand three hundred and ninety-two feet in height: let him imagine a column of fire of three or four miles in circumference, and sometimes more, whose height is more than double that of the mountain, rising from it with a thundering noise, greater than that of all the cannon in the world discharged together. It seems as if it would set the sky on fire: lightnings flash from it. The dazzling brightness of its fire could not be endured by the eye, did not immense spiral clouds of smoke moderate its fierceness at intervals. These spread through the atmosphere, which they thicken: the whole horizon is covered with darkness; and at length nothing is to be seen but the burning summit of the mountain, and the wonderful column of fire.

'§ 57. Its height, bulk, and explosion, result from the confinement in which the air had been kept within the volcano. Rarefied to the highest degree, forced on by the increasing heat of the immense pit, and pressed more and more by the prodigious fermentation of the lava, the inflamed air, reduced to the size of the crater, at length escapes, spinning round and round. Breaking the top of the shaft, it bears it along in a thousand pieces, with soot, ashes, and pumice, with which the sides of the abyss within were loaded. In this horrible whirlwind it is even common to see huge pieces of calcined rock, torn from the bosom of the mountain, carried into the air.

'§ 58. The display of this phenomenon, in its extent and duration, depends upon the degree of force in the circumstances we have just mentioned. When the parts first raised lose this force, and, being left to their own weight, would naturally sink, those that come next, being still themselves supported, repel and throw them off. At that juncture an overspreading of the fire takes place at the top of the column which adds to its beauty. I think it must have been from this view of it that the younger Pliny drew his comparison between the productions of that eruption of Vesuvius, by which his uncle was killed, and of which he was himself an eye-witness, and the cypress tree.

'§ 59. In a short time the whole of the column turns into a horrible shower of red hot rocks, flints, and ashes. Monstrous burning masses are seen bounding and rolling down the side of the mountain. Wo be to those places, which lie in the direction of the wind prevailing at the time of this tremendous shower! Pompeii, Herculaneum, and Stabiæ, three towns to the Southwest of Vesuvius, disappeared, about seventeen centuries ago, by a similar occurrence: and it was only in this century (the eighteenth) that they were discovered. A column, such as that we have been describing, broke over them, and the land about them: they were buried more than fifty feet under a mass of ashes and calcined flints, which was farther covered by a bed of lava several feet deep. If the wind be violent the ashes are carried to an incredible distance.

'§ 60. Rome and Venice, the former of which is a hundred and fifty miles from Vesuvius, and the latter double that distance, have been several times incommoded by its ashes. In our times, June 1794, all the South-east of Italy was covered by them. A letter written by the Archbishop of Tarento, dated June 18, during the eruption, says, "We are covered with thick clouds of volcanic ashes." Some variation of the wind must have altered the first course of that light substance, as the archbishop in his letter presumed that they proceeded from Stromboli or Etna. Those clouds passed Tarento, which is more than two hundred and fifty miles from Vesuvius, went beyond Otranto, at the extremity of the province of Lecce, and were lost in the Mediterranean at the entrance of the Adriatic Sea, nearly four hundred miles distant from the point of their departure. This no doubt is prodigious: but that the tops of the houses at Constantinople, which is almost a thousand miles from Vesuvius, should have been covered four inches with its ashes, would have been difficult to believe, had not contemporary authors, some of whom were at the time living in that city, reported the fact, and uniformly dated it on the eleventh of November 472, at noon, when the people were attending the games of the Circus. (*See l'Histoire du Bas Empire, tome* 8, *page* 59). We are less surprised then to read that the ashes of Etna, which is three times as high as Vesuvius, and a little nearer to Egypt, reached Alexandria: a town, the inhabitants of which have lately witnessed an event, that, though of a different kind, must have appeared to them quite as extraordinary. At the Eastern confines of Africa, on the first of August 1798, they saw thunderbolts dart from the North-west of Europe, break suddenly over their shores, and in the course of a few hours completely destroy a powerful navy that rode at anchor before the town. I need not add, that the thunderbolts I mean were those of Great Britain, directed by Lord Nelson.'

G.2.

In chapters 25, 26, 27, and 28, we are presented with an enumeration of the volcanoes known to be burning on the Globe; the total number of which is here estimated at 189. Of these, ninety-nine are on the continent, and ninety in islands.

The author afterward makes some observations on the general proximity of volcanoes to the Sea; and he remarks that

that an extinguished volcano may be rekindled. In proof of this latter position, he cites the instance of Mount Vesuvius; which, after having been apparently extinguished for several centuries, took fire again in the reign of the Emperor Titus on the 24th of August 79, and produced that terrible eruption by which Pliny the Naturalist lost his life, and by which the cities of Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabiæ were in the same day overwhelmed with a shower of ashes.

Chap. 32. gives an account of the Mud Volcano at Maccalouba; and in chap. 33. the discovery of a similar phænomenon, made by Dr. Pallas, is mentioned. We afterward find some very interesting remarks on submarine volcanoes; and we shall here give, in the words of the author, a description of the volcanic eruption of Santorin, in the year 1767.*

'§ 121. The eruption of 1767 took place between the Little Kamenoi, and the island of Hiera. It began in the month of June. The earth, after being shaken violently for some days by the action of fire, raised the sea in such a manner as to occasion a dread of its swallowing up all the islands thereabouts. A thick black smoke darkened the air, and infected it with so strong a stench of sulphur, that many persons and animals were suffocated by it. Black ashes, resembling gun-powder, fell all around. Torrents of flame, issuing from the sea, and waving on it to the height of several feet, lighted at intervals this horrible scene. The frightful mixture of different sounds, produced by all the elements in fury, froze every heart with a dread of the horrors which every instant might be the result of their conflict.

'At length, after a labour of ten or twelve days, Nature paused, and the effect of her agitation was discovered in a new island, which had risen near the Little Kamenoi. There was no time lost in going to examine it. Many parts of it were still burning. It was a shapeless mass of baked substances, amalgamated by a lava, which, Father Gorée says, appeared to the eye like the crumb of fine bread. But the very next day the inquirers were compelled to relinquish this hasty curiosity, and betake themselves to flight. They felt the new soil moving: it rose in some parts and sunk in others. The earth, sea, and sky soon resumed their formidable appearance. The symptoms appeared even to spread wider and to threaten worse. The boiling sea several times changed colour: flames, following one another without intermission, issued as from a vast furnace, but accompanied with ashes and pumice. The frightful noise of subterranean thunders was heard. It seemed as if enormous rocks, darting from the bottom of the abyss, beat against the vaults above it, and were alternately repelled and thrown up again: the repetition of their blows, says the author of the narrative, was distinctly heard. Some of them making or finding a passage, were seen flying up red hot into the air, and again falling into the sea whence they had

* Some account of this terrific event was also given in the 37th vol. of the M. R. (Old Series), p. 505, &c.

just

just been ejected. Masses were produced, held together for some days, and then disappeared. In this general disorder large portions of the Little Kamenoi were swallowed up. Meanwhile the labour of the volcano took a larger surface; its ejections became prodigiously abundant, and a new island was seen forming. By successive additions, continued for near four months, it made a junction with that produced in June. It was named *the Black Island*, from the colour of its soil. It is nearly twice as large as the Little Kamenoi, and is separated from it by a very narrow strait. The volcano continued creating alarm till the end of May in the following year; frequently shaking the earth and sea, and causing frightful noises. It even opened again, but only for a moment, on the 15th of April, and threw out a multitude of large burning rocks, which fell at the distance of two miles.

'It is therefore proved by nine eruptions, recorded in history, that there exists a maritime volcano at Santorin. These eruptions have happened in the space of twenty-one centuries.'

Chapter 37. contains an account of the maritime volcanoes of the Azores, the effects of which appear to be equally tremendous with those of Santorin.—Some idea of these eruptions may be conceived from the following representation:

'§ 123. In July 1638 near the island of St. Michael, where the sea was known to be a hundred and twenty feet deep, though at a very little distance farther the depth becomes almost suddenly more than nine hundred, there rose, after a labour of several weeks, an island, about six miles round. It was re-absorbed in about the same space of time as it had taken for its formation.

'In 1691, from the 6th of July to the 12th of August, this volcano never ceased appearing in agitation, by internal thunders and shocks, that convulsed the island of St. Michael, and occasioned damage on it, by the heat and violent motions of the sea, and by eruptions of flames, ashes and pumice: but, in this instance, its ejections did not rise to the level of the Ocean; no new island appeared.

'Nine and twenty years after, in 1720, amidst the most frightful complication of horrors, there rose an island, a little smaller than that of 1638, which, however, had sufficient height to be discovered at sea, from a distance of seven or eight leagues. It was observed to be in the same spot as that which had been occupied by the preceding ephemeral island, but that at the time of this new production, the sea above the summit of the volcanic mountain, was not more than ninety feet. The ruins of the former emissions had probably occasioned this difference: they perhaps also increased the difficulty of the labour of Nature; for so great was the disorder, according to the accounts that were published of this event, that many persons died of fright.

'The account of these three eruptions are to be found in Buffon. They are more minutely described in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, of the year 1721; and they demonstrate the existence of a submarine volcano, near St. Michael's.

'§ 124. The eruption of 1757 discovered another of them to us in this cluster. It is, as we have said, eighty leagues distant from the other.

'On the 9th of July, a little before midnight, St. George's, Pico, Fayal, three islands forming a closer group among themselves, being scarcely five leagues asunder, and Tercera, though double that distance from St. George's, were suddenly attacked at the same instant, and shaken to their foundations by horrible convulsions of the earth. The first shock lasted two whole minutes. The raised Ocean no longer kept its shores. In this dreadful night many persons lost their lives, and these islands, hitherto fortunate, but at this fatal moment involved in the terrors of desolation, were covered with ruins. I pass over the particulars usual to these sad phænomena, the confused bellowings of land and water, the smoke and ashes which filled the air, and the flames issuing from the Ocean, to come to the result of this turbulent labour of Nature; which was the production of eighteen little islands, that rose insensibly from beneath the sea, at the distance of about ten yards from the North coast of St. George's. They disappeared in a few months, as those produced by the volcano of St. Michael had done before. The maritime peaks of the Azores have, according to all appearance, less surface than that of Santorin; whence I imagine proceed the instability of the productions of the former volcanoes, and the stability of those of the latter. It was observed that Flores, Corvo, St. Michael and St. Mary's, were not at all affected by the eruption of the volcano of St. George's, and that Graciosa suffered very little.'

In chapters 38 and 39, the Abbé treats of certain opinions concerning the formation of submarine volcanoes. In chapter 40. which concludes the work, we find some conjectures concerning the situation of the antient Atlantic territory, its extent, its destruction, the consequences that must have followed, and the reasons which have caused the conjecture that its ruin was produced by volcanic fires.

We have already observed that this work is extremely entertaining; and, as a compilation, it contains a great number of facts respecting volcanoes which may be of real use to science: but the author is evidently deficient in chemical and mineralogical knowlege,—though this deficiency is perceptible only in certain particulars, and therefore does not destroy the utility of the publication in a general point of view.

Hatch.

ART V. *The Man of Fortitude*; or, Schedoni in England. By B. Frère. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Wallis. 1801.

THIS novel is a close, and not unsuccessful, imitation of Mrs. Radcliffe's peculiar manner of wonder-working. The reader is kept in a continual state of agitation and horror, by the powerful engines of trap-doors, back-stairs, black robes, and

and pale faces: but the solution of the enigma is ever too near at hand, to permit the indulgence of supernatural appearances. A well-written scene of a party at snap-dragon would exceed all the fearful images of this book. There is, besides, no *keeping* in the author's design: fright succeeds to fright, and danger to danger, without permitting the unhappy reader to draw his breath, or to repose for a moment on subjects of character or sentiment. In the second volume, a boxing-match is introduced; and in the third, we find a ludicrous encounter with a supposed apparition: but these episodes are totally unconnected with the plot.

We are sorry to observe that the invention of our writers is nearly exhausted, in their ghostly narrations. Mr. Frère has attempted something original, in making a party of fearful adventurers mistake a coach with lamps for an apparition: but we apprehend that this fancy (which is *not* altogether new) will scarcely meet with approbation. Machines of a different nature might certainly be found. A *Montgolfier*, we know, alarmed all the hackney-coachmen in Paris in a dark night;—a descent from the clouds in a balloon might still astonish the ignorant inhabitants of remote villages;—and now that we have evidence of the existence of Mermaids *, an ingenious writer might provide himself with a tolerable ghost, to be viewed from the quarter-deck, or cabin-windows.—We would recommend, also, the substitution of an old quarry for a game at hide and seek, instead of the 'east and west wings,' the 'marble slabs which echo to the steps of the Wandering Wight,' and the 'Sliding Pannels,' of which we are heartily tired; and to which we are so accustomed, that *such* "direness, familiar to our thoughts, cannot once startle us."—Should all these expedients fail, we must still think that a calf with a white face will produce much greater effect as an apparition, than a coach with lamps; and that a little of a man's own invention is worth a large portion of that which he borrows from others.

We shall present to our readers the following specimen of this writer's style:

'Edmund, at first undetermined how to act, now arose, and went down to the next story. The room which he recognized as the apartment of his Adelaide, and which a few hours before was, as well as the rest of the house, involved in total darkness, was now, to his extreme surprise, in the middle of the night completely illuminated. He entered;—but the object which presented itself rivetted him to the spot.—Every function of his body, every sensation of his soul was

* See Chisholm on the Yellow Fever, 2d edition, M. R. for December, p. 369.

suspended;

suspended; a deadly chilling stopped the circulation of his blood: without having fainted, and in an erect posture, he appeared annihilated.—On a table, surrounded by large sable wax tapers, lay a coffin, covered by a black cloth reaching the ground.

'When recovering from this stupor, the dread of the worst that could betide him quickened his heart to every racking sensation.—Twice, urged by despair, he attempted to lift up the pall, and to discover by the plate on the coffin, whether his Adelaide—twice the dread of an horrid certainty withheld his arm. During this excruciating suspence, he again heard steps ascending the stairs: wanting resolution to make enquiries, he with precipitation withdrew behind a curtain suspended in a corner of the apartment.

'A young lady of the most elegant form, and arrayed in deep mourning, now entered, eagerly approached the coffin, then turning to her female attendants, by a motion of her hand bade them withdraw.

'Oh, Edmund! what were the ecstasies of thy heart, how enviable thy feelings when so suddenly revived from the dread of losing for ever thy richest treasure, in the beautiful mourner thou beheldest thine.—But, hush! she speaks!

"Precious remains of an ever-beloved parent," softly breathed Adelaide, mournfully viewing the coffin, "let me take one last look, let me behold once more those features whose image will ever live in my heart."

'As she spoke, she slowly removed a part of the pall, lifted up the lid, and in silent sorrow gazed on the countenance of her departed aunt. Then recollecting her own forlorn situation, she continued, her eyes swimming in tears:

"O thou! from whom I experienced all the tenderness of a mother, who didst rear and protect my infancy, who guidedst my steps in the dawn of unfolding reason, in whose bosom shall thy friendless Adelaide now find repose? Under whose wing can she shelter from the snares of the perfidious? Alas! my other friends were gone; my last, my best friend remained; but now from the orphan girl her spirit is likewise fled."

'She could say no more, but kneeling by the coffin, she reclined her head on the edge of the table. Her tears, her sobs, bespoke the abundance of her grief.

"No!" said the deeply affected Edmund, kneeling by her, and taking her hand—"No! thine Edmund, at least, lives for thee."

'He was proceeding; but the terrified, amazed Adelaide shrunk from his touch, uttered a piercing shriek, and sunk on the ground.

'Her lover, astonished at her action, and excessively alarmed, hastened to afford her all possible relief. He had already placed her on the nearest chair, when he felt himself touched by a kind of wand, and as he turned round, a deep-toned voice awfully pronounced the portentous word—FORBEAR!

'Edmund then beheld a tall figure, completely clad in a loose black gown that swept the ground. The face of the object was concealed by a veil of the same colour reaching his girdle.

"Who art thou?—Whence comest thou?—Why this disguise?"

"FORBEAR! I CHARGE THEE, FORBEAR!" was the awful reply.

"To thine admonition, in that concealing and treacherous garb, I shall not attend. But, by Heaven! I'll know who thou art!"

'At the same time, whilst his left arm still supported the fainting maid, by a sudden spring with his right, he tore off the veil;—the veil that, to his amazement and horror, had concealed the fleshless, worm-eaten head of a skeleton, whose eyes alone rolled alive in their hollow sockets.'

This story of the death's head represented by a mask, like the other machinery of the plot, has been already exhibited in more than one publication.

Fer.

ART. VI. *Archæologia;* or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity, Vol. XII.

[*Article concluded from our last Review, p.* 419.]

THE eighteenth Number of this volume contains an account of *Flints discovered at Hoxne in Suffolk;* communicated by John Frere, Esq. This gentleman thinks that the substances in question are evidently *weapons of war*, fabricated and used by a people who had not the use of metals. 'They lay in great numbers at the depth of about twelve feet in a stratified soil, which was dug into for the purpose of raising clay for bricks.—The manner in which they lie would lead to the persuasion that it was a place of their manufacture, and not of their accidental deposit; and the numbers of them were so great, that the man who carried on the brick-work, before he was aware of their being objects of curiosity, had emptied baskets full of them into the ruts of the adjoining road.'

Antiquities from St. Domingo, described by Thomas Rider, Esq. consist of images and beads, taken out of a cave, which few negroes had courage sufficient to enter.—*Stone-pillars, crosses, and crucifixes*, form the subject of the next article, presented by T. Astle, Esq. Respecting the first, it is well known that their use is of very high antiquity; and it is properly observed by Mr. Astle that some, who had embraced Christianity, still retained the habit of resorting to these pagan erections, for the purpose of worship; on which account, the figure of the cross was engraven on several of them, which was considered as removing them from the service of the devil. This writer also remarks that 'stones which had been erected in the times of paganism obtained the name of *crosses*, although they had not any resemblance of Christ's crucifixion cut on them.' In his farther account, he appears somewhat inclined to favour the use of crucifixes, and the sign of the cross: but,

when

when the ignorance and superstition attending the practice is considered, and the degeneracy which it has occasioned from the plain, simple, but most valuable truth of the gospel, we should be cautious in the recommendation of this kind of observances.

In our Review for July last (p. 238.) we took notice of a letter from Charles Townley, Esq. to the Rev. John Brand, giving an account of antiquities discovered at Ribchester. The *Helmet and Mask*, which are there particularly considered, were thought not to belong to armour made for war, but to that lighter species which was formerly executed merely for the purpose of processions; and, in Mr. Townley's letter, they were with some apparent probability suspected to have been constructed in honour of Isis, as the *Magna Mater*, and to have been appendants in Roman camps. The Rev. Stephen Weston, in a letter to the President of this Society, inserted in the present volume, forms a different conjecture: he imagines that the head-piece, though found in the same heap of sand, does not belong to the vizor, or mask, which was itself antique when the cap or petasus was fitted to it. 'This covering, indeed, (adds Mr. W.) is totally unworthy of its place, being evidently of another age, somewhere between Severus and Constantius Chlorus; and its position here is like that of an Austin Friar on the Maison Carrée, or the hat of Harlequin on the head of Augustus.' The helmet, therefore, he discards, but he considers the mask as of the best Roman workmanship on the Greek model, and of the time of the Antonines. He supposes 'it to have been used at some festival, when the rites and orgies of the divinity represented by it were celebrated:' which divinity he concludes to have been Bacchus. He speaks again of its exquisite workmanship, in Corinthian brass, and farther illustrates it by two antique coins, one of which belonged to Dr. Hunter's collection;—of each, drawings are here exhibited.

Elliot Arthy, Esq. presented to the Society a small *Piece of Manuscript* called a *Griggiry* by the Mandingos, who inhabit a part of Africa situated about one hundred miles to the Northward of the British colony at Sierra Leone. These Griggiries are inclosed in little leathern cases, to which thongs are fixed, and thus they are hung and constantly worn around the neck or the waist. A Mandingo possessing one of them conceives himself secure from all harm whatever. This relation appears not in the least incredible, as we find similar instances of superstition in all parts of the world; and even among Christians, who ought to have been more enlightened.

Dr.

Dr. Russel, we are informed, says that the *Griggiry* is written in the Arabic hand used in Barbary, and contains the name of God frequently repeated, with the addition of some unintelligible characters. There are, it is asserted, certain persons among this ignorant people, as in other places, who have learned to take advantage of the general credulity; they are called *Griggirymen*, are regarded with reverence, and obtain riches and fame from these stupid talismans, so customary among the Arabians; with whom, though so far distant, the Mandingos, it seems, have frequent intercourse. None of their *charms*, however, can secure them from the horrors of *English* and *Christian* slavery!

We are now introduced again to the company of Mons. De La Rue, who proceeds in his dissertation on the lives and works of Anglo-Norman poets of the thirteenth century. The first here introduced is Stephen of Langton, an Englishman by birth, and Archbishop of Canterbury in the year 1207. It may rather surprise the reader that the first proof of this Prelate's poetical talents is drawn from his sermons; in one of which, relative to the Holy Virgin, is a 'stanza of a song, which seems (says this writer) dictated by the Graces, and if found in any other situation, would appear to form a compliment delicately made to some Beauty.' A theological drama, in which Truth, Justice, Mercy, and Peace, debate concerning the fate of Adam after the fall, is another of his productions; and a third is a canticle on the passion of Jesus Christ. Chardry, a poet of the same period, exercised his genius on what were called subjects of devotion: but he made it very plain that he despised them:—he might, perhaps, have good sense and truth sufficient to rise above the folly and imposition of the day: the fable of the *Seven Sleepers* was one of the topics which employed his pen. William of Waddington also, though apparently superstitious himself, freely censures the *miracles*, the nonsense, or theatrical representations, relative to the Scriptures and the martyrs for which there appears to have been so prevalent a taste. Robert Grosse-Tete, Bishop of Lincoln, (who may be supposed to be pretty well known to our readers) is another in this list. In that age of ignorance, stupidity, and priestly dominion, he may well be regarded as a man of learning; that he was a poet is not, perhaps, so generally thought; however, some remains of this kind are here mentioned; such as, the sin of the first man and his restoration, otherwise intitled *Le Roman des Romans*. 'At that time they called every thing *Roman* that was written in the language of romance, and from the importance of the subject treated in this work, it is stated *Roman des Romans*. It shews,

(we

(we are told,) the imagination and facility of the author.' The most entertaining part of this article consists of an account of the *Supplement to Robert Wace's Brut of England* * by an anonymous writer. There is somewhat ingenious and diverting in the method which the wise men of England and Normandy are said to have employed, in order that they might return an answer, clear and decided, to the question proposed by William the First, concerning the future destiny of his children. Denis Pyramus finishes the list: he was a courtier, highly acceptable to Henry III. and his barons: he was also an epicure, and acknowleges that his muse was libertine: in his old age, however, he quitted the lute of Anacreon, and his penitential muse would sing on religious subjects alone: of these compositions, two remain, in French verse. He is here described as 'a man of a sure and enlightened taste, of a sound and critical judgment,' &c.

The article occurring next has some connection with the foregoing, and may be received as a matter of curiosity: *A short chronological Account of the Religious Establishments, made by the English Catholics on the Continent of Europe*, by the Abbé Mann. According to this detail, the whole amount, since the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, is upwards of forty; and of all this number, we are informed, there now remain only the three colleges of secular clergy at Rome, Valladolid, and Lisbon, the Benedictine abbey of Lamspring in Germany, and the Nuns of Lisbon and Munich. We cannot regret this circumstance. Friends as we are to liberty, and much as we wish that persons of all opinions should not only be exempt from oppression, but be treated with humanity and kindness, we cannot mourn when the sources of superstitious bigotry and cruelty are weakened, or destroyed; though we may lament the manner in which this has been sometimes effected. The Abbé seems to suppose that a time may come, when a short account of this small part of the British nation may be found interesting.

Some *Extracts from the Parish-Register of St. Bennett's, St. Paul's Wharf, London*, are presented by the Rev. Mark Noble. By these it appears that, from about the year 1623 to 1654, two noblemen of high rank resided in this small parish, and in the heart of the city. From entries relative to the plague, we learn that a few persons died in the years before and after that of 1665, which is rendered so memorable by that dreadful visitation; yet of this year no notice is taken: the reason of which, Mr. Noble imagines to be 'that the burial ground is

* See M. R. vol. xxiv. N. S. p. 300.

so small, that none were permitted to bring their dead there who died of the infection.'

The next number is of a more classical kind: *Observations on a Greek Sepulchral Monument in the Possession of Maxwell Garthshore, M. D.* by Taylor Combe, Esq. This monument was brought into England in the year 1777, by a gentleman who had resided a considerable time at Smyrna: it commemorates a youth who had not attained his twenty-first year; and it is a remarkable relic, on which Mr. Combe has bestowed some just and ingenious remarks: he conjectures that it may be about two thousand years old.

A Description of the Church of Melbourne in Derbyshire is given by William Wilkins, Esq. who, in the course of his dissertation, attempts to correct an error or misconception, concerning the *Porticus* of antient churches, into which, he thinks, Mr. Bentham has fallen in his learned and ingenious remarks on the Saxon buildings of this kind. As we cannot well explain this subject to our readers, which a view of the plates would accomplish at once, we pass to another topic; only observing that Mr. Bentham is considered as the first author who professedly treats of the origin and progress of church architecture.

We wonder not that high veneration for the character and principles of our renowned Alfred should have induced Henry Howard, Esq. when at Winchester in the year 1797, to search attentively for the tomb of this monarch; and we unite with him in lamenting the failure of his researches. Antient history has informed us that, in the year 1112, the remains of Alfred were translated with great pomp to a tomb in the magnificent abbey-church built by Henry the First, and called Hyde, near the walls of the city of Winchester: but few indeed are now the visible memorials of this once capital erection. The spot on which it stood has been purchased by the county, and on it the New Gaol or Bridewell has been built; and we are equally surprised with this writer, when we are told that this occurred so late as the year 1788, and that *no one* in the neighbourhood, led either by curiosity or veneration, attempted to discover and rescue the remains of Alfred from their ignoble fate. Mr. Howard, a casual visitor of the place, exerted his endeavours, and found in the keeper of the Bridewell a respectable and intelligent man, who afforded him some information, though not of the most pleasing kind. Among other particulars, it is said that a stone coffin was discovered, cased with lead both within and without, containing some bones and remains of garments: this lead, in its decayed state, sold for two guineas; but the bones were thrown about, and the coffin

was

was broken into pieces: other coffins were also found. Was there no inhabitant of Winchester, who could preserve from oblivion the memorials of a prince so deservedly respected, and *really* illustrious?—Where were the members of Wickham college, or the Dean and Chapter, &c. of that rich cathedral?

Mr. Astle communicates the *Copy of a curious Record of Pardon in the Tower of London.*—Cecilia Rigeway was indicted, at the assizes at Nottingham in 1357, for the murder of her husband; and, as she would not plead, sentence was passed on her, and she was remanded to the prison; where she remained, as the record states, for forty days, without sustenance. Mr. Astle remarks,—'What collusion or intercourse might have been between Mrs. Rigeway and the keeper of the prison, must for ever remain a secret. But that she subsisted in prison, for forty days, without meat or drink, was believed to have been by a miraculous interposition in her favour; otherwise this solemn instrument, under the Great Seal of England, would not have passed.'

The last tract in this volume, in its regular course (No. xxx.), is a copy of an original manuscript, which bears for its title, "*A Breviate touching the Order of Government of a Nobleman's House, with the Officers, theire Places and Chardge, as perticularly appearethe.*" We have no farther historical account of it, than that it was purchased by Sir Joseph Banks at the sale of the late Marquis of Donegal's library: but it carries us back to no *very* distant period, being dated A. D. 1605. We find here great state; although, in the absence of the family, the house and furniture might probably make what would now be deemed a mean appearance, the tapestries, coverings, and other ornaments being withdrawn.—The officers first pass in review, and are instructed in the nature and business of their place;—such as,—'Stewarde, Comptroller, Surveyor, Receavore, Gentleman Usher, Gentleman of Horsse, Learned Stewarde, Auditor, Clarcke of the Kittchine, Yeoman of the Ewerie,—of the Seller,—of the Greate Chamber,—of the Halle,—of the Pantrie,—of the Butterie,—of the Wardrobes,—of the Horsse,—of the Cookes, Yeoman Porter, Bruer, &c.' From this recital, it may be concluded that this breviate was intended for a nobleman high in rank, or of very large fortune.—The office of Gentleman Usher is discussed with peculiar care; especially what relates to the *great chamber*;—'for in that place there must bee noe delaye, because it is the place of state, and the ieyes of all the best sorte of stranngers bee there lookers on; that what faulte, beeing there committed, bee never so littell, sheweth more than any place ells wheresoever, and therefore a speciall respecte, care, and diligens, is to bee had therein,

Dr. Russel, we are informed, says that the *Griggiry* is written in the Arabic hand used in Barbary, and contains the name of God frequently repeated, with the addition of some unintelligible characters. There are, it is asserted, certain persons among this ignorant people, as in other places, who have learned to take advantage of the general credulity; they are called *Griggirymen*, are regarded with reverence, and obtain riches and fame from these stupid talismans, so customary among the Arabians; with whom, though so far distant, the Mandingos, it seems, have frequent intercourse. None of their *charms*, however, can secure them from the horrors of *English* and *Christian* slavery!

We are now introduced again to the company of Mons. De La Rue, who proceeds in his dissertation on the lives and works of Anglo-Norman poets of the thirteenth century. The first here introduced is Stephen of Langton, an Englishman by birth, and Archbishop of Canterbury in the year 1207. It may rather surprise the reader that the first proof of this Prelate's poetical talents is drawn from his sermons; in one of which, relative to the Holy Virgin, is a 'stanza of a song, which seems (says this writer) dictated by the Graces, and if found in any other situation, would appear to form a compliment delicately made to some Beauty.' A theological drama, in which Truth, Justice, Mercy, and Peace, debate concerning the fate of Adam after the fall, is another of his productions; and a third is a canticle on the passion of Jesus Christ. Chardry, a poet of the same period, exercised his genius on what were called subjects of devotion: but he made it very plain that he despised them:—he might, perhaps, have good sense and truth sufficient to rise above the folly and imposition of the day: the fable of the *Seven Sleepers* was one of the topics which employed his pen. William of Waddington also, though apparently superstitious himself, freely censures the *miracles*, the nonsense, or theatrical representations, relative to the Scriptures and the martyrs for which there appears to have been so prevalent a taste. Robert Grosse-Tete, Bishop of Lincoln, (who may be supposed to be pretty well known to our readers) is another in this list. In that age of ignorance, stupidity, and priestly dominion, he may well be regarded as a man of learning; that he was a poet is not, perhaps, so generally thought; however, some remains of this kind are here mentioned; such as, the sin of the first man and his restoration, otherwise intitled *Le Roman des Romans*. 'At that time they called every thing *Roman* that was written in the language of romance, and from the importance of the subject treated in this work, it is stated *Roman des Romans*. It shews,

(we

(we are told,) the imagination and facility of the author.' The most entertaining part of this article consists of an account of the *Supplement to Robert Wace's Brut of England* * by an anonymous writer. There is somewhat ingenious and diverting in the method which the wise men of England and Normandy are said to have employed, in order that they might return an answer, clear and decided, to the question proposed by William the First, concerning the future destiny of his children. Denis Pyramus finishes the list: he was a courtier, highly acceptable to Henry III. and his barons: he was also an epicure, and acknowleges that his muse was libertine: in his old age, however, he quitted the lute of Anacreon, and his penitential muse would sing on religious subjects alone: of these compositions, two remain, in French verse. He is here described as 'a man of a sure and enlightened taste, of a sound and critical judgment,' &c.

The article occurring next has some connection with the foregoing, and may be received as a matter of curiosity: *A short chronological Account of the Religious Establishments, made by the English Catholics on the Continent of Europe*, by the Abbé Mann. According to this detail, the whole amount, since the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, is upwards of forty; and of all this number, we are informed, there now remain only the three colleges of secular clergy at Rome, Valladolid, and Lisbon, the Benedictine abbey of Lamspring in Germany, and the Nuns of Lisbon and Munich. We cannot regret this circumstance. Friends as we are to liberty, and much as we wish that persons of all opinions should not only be exempt from oppression, but be treated with humanity and kindness, we cannot mourn when the sources of superstitious bigotry and cruelty are weakened, or destroyed; though we may lament the manner in which this has been sometimes effected. The Abbé seems to suppose that a time may come, when a short account of this small part of the British nation may be found interesting.

Some *Extracts from the Parish-Register of St. Bennett's, St. Paul's Wharf, London*, are presented by the Rev. Mark Noble. By these it appears that, from about the year 1623 to 1654, two noblemen of high rank resided in this small parish, and in the heart of the city. From entries relative to the plague, we learn that a few persons died in the years before and after that of 1665, which is rendered so memorable by that dreadful visitation; yet of this year no notice is taken: the reason of which, Mr. Noble imagines to be 'that the burial ground is

* See M. R. vol. xxiv. N. S. p. 300.

so small, that none were permitted to bring their dead there who died of the infection.'

The next number is of a more classical kind: *Observations on a Greek Sepulchral Monument in the Possession of Maxwell Garthshore, M. D.* by Taylor Combe, Esq. This monument was brought into England in the year 1777, by a gentleman who had resided a considerable time at Smyrna: it commemorates a youth who had not attained his twenty-first year; and it is a remarkable relic, on which Mr. Combe has bestowed some just and ingenious remarks: he conjectures that it may be about two thousand years old.

A Description of the Church of Melbourne in Derbyshire is given by William Wilkins, Esq. who, in the course of his dissertation, attempts to correct an error or misconception, concerning the *Porticus* of antient churches, into which, he thinks, Mr. Bentham has fallen in his learned and ingenious remarks on the Saxon buildings of this kind. As we cannot well explain this subject to our readers, which a view of the plates would accomplish at once, we pass to another topic; only observing that Mr. Bentham is considered as the first author who professedly treats of the origin and progress of church architecture.

We wonder not that high veneration for the character and principles of our renowned Alfred should have induced Henry Howard, Esq. when at Winchester in the year 1797, to search attentively for the tomb of this monarch; and we unite with him in lamenting the failure of his researches. Antient history has informed us that, in the year 1112, the remains of Alfred were translated with great pomp to a tomb in the magnificent abbey-church built by Henry the First, and called Hyde, near the walls of the city of Winchester: but few indeed are now the visible memorials of this once capital erection. The spot on which it stood has been purchased by the county, and on it the New Gaol or Bridewell has been built; and we are equally surprised with this writer, when we are told that this occurred so late as the year 1788, and that *no one* in the neighbourhood, led either by curiosity or veneration, attempted to discover and rescue the remains of Alfred from their ignoble fate. Mr. Howard, a casual visitor of the place, exerted his endeavours, and found in the keeper of the Bridewell a respectable and intelligent man, who afforded him some information, though not of the most pleasing kind. Among other particulars, it is said that a stone coffin was discovered, cased with lead both within and without, containing some bones and remains of garments: this lead, in its decayed state, sold for two guineas; but the bones were thrown about, and the coffin

was

was broken into pieces: other coffins were also found. Was there no inhabitant of Winchester, who could preserve from oblivion the memorials of a prince so deservedly respected, and *really* illustrious?—Where were the members of Wickham college, or the Dean and Chapter, &c. of that rich cathedral?

Mr. Astle communicates the *Copy of a curious Record of Pardon in the Tower of London.*—Cecilia Rigeway was indicted, at the assizes at Nottingham in 1357, for the murder of her husband; and, as she would not plead, sentence was passed on her, and she was remanded to the prison; where she remained, as the record states, for forty days, without sustenance. Mr. Astle remarks,—'What collusion or intercourse might have been between Mrs. Rigeway and the keeper of the prison, must for ever remain a secret. But that she subsisted in prison, for forty days, without meat or drink, was believed to have been by a miraculous interposition in her favour; otherwise this solemn instrument, under the Great Seal of England, would not have passed.'

The last tract in this volume, in its regular course (No. xxx.), is a copy of an original manuscript, which bears for its title, "*A Breviate touching the Order of Government of a Nobleman's House, with the Officers, theire Places and Chardge, as perticularly appearethe.*" We have no farther historical account of it, than that it was purchased by Sir Joseph Banks at the sale of the late Marquis of Donegal's library: but it carries us back to no *very* distant period, being dated A.D. 1605. We find here great state; although, in the absence of the family, the house and furniture might probably make what would now be deemed a mean appearance, the tapestries, coverings, and other ornaments being withdrawn.—The officers first pass in review, and are instructed in the nature and business of their place;—such as,—'Stewarde, Comptroller, Surveyor, Receavore, Gentleman Usher, Gentleman of Horsse, Learned Stewarde, Auditor, Clarcke of the Kittchine, Yeoman of the Ewerie,—of the Seller,—of the Greate Chamber,—of the Halle,—of the Pantrie,—of the Butterie,—of the Wardrobes,—of the Horsse,—of the Cookes, Yeoman Porter, Bruer, &c.' From this recital, it may be concluded that this breviate was intended for a nobleman high in rank, or of very large fortune.—The office of Gentleman Usher is discussed with peculiar care; especially what relates to the *great chamber*;—'for in that place there must bee noe delaye, because it is the place of state, and the ieyes of all the best sorte of stranngers bee there lookers on; that what faulte, beeing there committed, bee never so littell, sheweth more than any place ells wheresoever, and therefore a speciall respecte, care, and diligens, is to bee had therein,

for that place, before all others, is the cheefe and principal staite in the house; for service there not dewlie and comlie donne, disgraceth all the rest in any place ells, as littell woorth, what chardge of entertaynement soever bee bestowede; wherefore the gentleman usher is to take a special care herein for theire creddite sake and honnor of that place: he is to command and to have at commaundemente all the gentlemen and yeomen wayters, and to see into their behaviors and fashion, that it bee civill, comlie, and well, and if any defects bee, in any of them, they are to instructe them in curteous manner, which is both good for them, and bettereth the lordes service,' &c.

A monthly Table, with a Diatorie, belonging thereunto, of all such Provisions as bee in seasone through the whole Yeare, is added.—We find the word *earable* here used for arable, and *earing-time* appears to signify the season of ploughing.—In the notes, it is said, 'In the list of birds and fowls here served up at table in a nobleman's house, it is hardly necessary to observe that many, if not most of them, are considered at this time as being rank carrion.' This expression is rather too strong: however, some of them are unknown; and several others, as articles of food, are quite neglected: '*Craynes*' seem to have forsaken these islands. It may excite a smile to hear it said of *Stares*, or Starlings, 'Stares flesh is dry and savery, and good against all poyson.'—Some 'necessarie instructions' follow, relative to agriculture, woods, cattle, &c. for every month of the year. We observe that January and February are pointed out as the properest season for 'felling all woodes for housholde provision,—and likewise timber for durable buildinge:' but if the 'barcke' be desired, then this writer adds, 'I houlde fellinge of such timber to bee best when the sappe putteth forth the buddes with some leaves in the topps of the trees, but I hardlie look ever for good timber to growe of such stovens so felled in that seasone.' He modestly concludes the whole in these terms:—'These few notes within written I have thought good to sett doune for the better understanding of such who have not bine acquanted therwith, though to moste good husbands, with many other secrets, they bee better knowne than I ether cann or will take upon me to express. 1606.'

The above articles are, as usual, followed by an Appendix, formed of extracts from such communications as the Council have not chosen to publish *entire*. Among these are,—an account of *two antient Snuff-boxes found under a Stair case in the Tower;* in one of them the *spoon* still remains: but their date, and the materials of which they are fabricated, do not appear;—*Latin Inscription taken from a Stone in Bookham Church, Surry,* which

which commemorates its being built in 1341;—*Copy of an original Record in the Reign of Edwarde the Sixte, relative to Armorial Bearings;*—*Farther Extracts from Dr. Leith's original Manuscript*, mentioned in our former account of this volume, No. V.: they relate to *Bowes, Crosbowes, Bowestaves, Longebow Arrowes, Muskett Arrowes, Bow-stringes, Lyvery Arrowes, Arrowes for Fierwoorkes, Shooting-gloves*, &c. stored at many different places, A.D. 1599;—*Seal belonging to the Prior of the Friars Austins at Norwich*, supposed to be of the time of Edward III.;—*Ditto belonging to the Black Friars in the City of Oxford;*—*Fac-Simile of a Roman Altar lately found at Lancaster*, a votive tablet, which is thought to indicate that this was the situation of the Roman station *Longovicum*, specified in the itinerary of Antoninus;—*Copy of an Original Paper, dated in May* 1577, *indorsed*, '*Thomas Shakespeares Bill*;' he was a messenger for the 'Queenes Mat^s. chamber,' and here asketh 'allowaunce' of six shillings and eight pence for having been sent to the houses of several 'Bishops' at different places;—*Several Urns, with their mouths downwards, covering Bones*, which appear to have been burnt, found in levelling a barrow on Buxton Common, Norfolk, and probably very antient;—*Pig of Lead*; Mr. Pegge's translation * of the inscription on which (vol. ix. p. 45.) is, and we believe justly, pronounced to be erroneous; the true translation seems to be, '*the Tribute of Tiberius Claudius, paid out of British Money*';—*Inscription also on the Window of Brereton Church* †, *Cheshire*, is said not to have been exactly copied; the mistake is rectified, but the difficulty or uncertainty respecting the person of Thomas Becket does not appear to be removed;—*Appendix to Inscriptions in the Tower, London*, consists of a printed tract, exceedingly rare, intitled, "*The Ende of Ladye Jane upon the Scaffolde*,' printed, it is believed, in the first year of the reign of Queen Mary;—*An antient Egyptian engraved Copper-plate*, is, we apprehend, a very curious relic, but we can notice only one remark concerning it by the Rev. Mr. Coxe; who says, 'I take it to be a numerical talisman of three by seven and three by three;'—The last article is an *Oeolipile*, or metal instrument, which, being filled with water and exposed to fire, produces a strong blast of wind: this uncouth and frightful figure, found at Basingstoke, is companion to another image described by Dr. Plot, in his History of Staffordshire, under the name of *Jack of Hilton*.

All the articles of this volume are not equally interesting, but, on the whole, it affords considerable information and amusement. Besides a few *Vignettes*, twenty-seven plates add

* See M. Rev. vol. i. N. S. p. 381. † Do. vol. ii. N. S. p. 15.

to the value of the publication; they are executed with great attention, and we believe that the references are generally very exact: the neglect of which, in some works, is a very great deficiency, and causes much inconvenience. Hl.

ART. VII. *Lectures on Diet and Regimen:* being a Systematic Inquiry into the most rational Means of preserving Health and prolonging Life: together with Physiological and Chemical Explanations; calculated chiefly for the Use of Families, in order to banish the prevailing Abuses and Prejudices in Medicine. By A. F. M. Willich, M. D. 8vo. pp. 690. 9s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

IT cannot be expected that we should enter into a particular analysis of this large volume; which is intended merely to convey, in a popular form, doctrines and facts that have already met with general assent. We may recommend it to general readers who are fond of dabbling in medical subjects, as a good compilation, delivered in plain and pretty correct language, entirely divested of the tendency to promote quacking, of which some other popular works have justly been accused; and as containing all the knowlege which can be usefully applied by common readers, while that which might be dangerously abused is properly with-holden. We must add, however, that it includes a section which should have been entirely omitted, because no respectable *female* (and female readers are particularly comprehended in a book professedly calculated *for the use of families*) can peruse it with propriety and satisfaction: we mean the dissertation on the *Sexual Intercourse;* a subject of which the physical view should certainly be reserved for medical men. In the *third* edition of the work, indeed, which we have lately seen, some unnecessary details of this description have been retrenched: but extirpation would have been the better cure for this complaint.

In the first part of the volume, we meet with an amusing account of some modern Empirics, who have contrived to attract a great share of attention, (and of money also,) in this very philosophical and discriminating age. We extract a portion of it, for the reader's entertainment:

'One of the most dazzling and successful inventors in modern times was MESSMER, who began his career of Medical Knight-errantry at Vienna. His house was the mirror of high life; the rendezvous of the gay, the young, the opulent, enlivened and entertained with continual concerts, routs, and illuminations. At a great expence he imported into Germany the first *Harmonica* from this country; he established cabinets of natural curiosities, and laboured constantly and secretly in his chemical laboratory; so that he acquired

acquired the reputation of being a great Alchemist, a philosopher studiously employed in the most useful and important researches.

'In 1766 he first publicly announced the object and nature of his secret labours:—all his discoveries centered in the *magnet*—which, according to his hypothesis, was the greatest and safest remedy hitherto proposed against all diseases incident to the human body. This declaration of Messmer excited very general attention; the more so, as about the same time he established an hospital in his own house, into which he admitted a number of patients *gratis*. Such disinterestedness procured, as might be expected, no small addition to his fame. He was, besides, fortunate in gaining over many celebrated physicians to espouse his opinions, who lavished the greatest encomiums on his new art, and were instrumental in communicating to the public a number of successful experiments. This seems to have surpassed the expectations of Messmer, and induced him to extend his original plan farther than it is likely he first intended. We find him soon afterwards assuming a more dogmatical and mysterious air, when, for the purpose of shining exclusively, he appeared in the character of a *Magician*—his pride and egotism would brook neither equal nor competitor.

'The common Loadstone, or Mineral Magnet, which is so well known, did not appear to him sufficiently important and mysterious: he contrived an unusual and unknown one, to the effect of which he gave the name of '*Animal Magnetism*.' After this he proceeded to a still bolder assumption, every where giving it out, that the inconceivable powers of this subtle fluid were centered in his own person. Now the Mono-drama began; and Messmer, at once the hero and chorus of the piece, performed his part in a masterly manner. He placed the most nervous, hysteric, and hypochondriac patients opposite to him; and by the sole act of stretching forth his finger, made them feel the most violent shocks. The effects of this wonderful power excited universal astonishment; its activity and penetrability being confirmed by unquestionable testimonies, from which it appeared, that blows, resembling those given by a blunt iron, could be imparted by the operator, while he himself was separated by two doors, nay even by thick walls. The very looks of this Prince of Jugglers had the power to excite painful cramps and twitches.

'This wonderful tide of success easily instigated his indefatigable genius to bolder attempts, especially as he had no severe criticisms to apprehend from the superstitious multitude. He roundly asserted things, of which he never offered the least shadow of proof; and for the truth of which he had no other pledge to offer, but his own high reputation. At one time he could communicate his magnetic power to paper, wool, silk, bread, leather, stones, water, &c.—at another he pronounced, that certain individuals possessed a greater degree of susceptibility for this power than others.

'It must be owned, however, to the honour of his cotemporaries, that many of them made it their business to encounter his extravagant pretensions, and to refute his dogmatical assertions with the most convincing arguments. Yet he long enjoyed the triumph of being

supported by blind followers; and their too great number completely overpowered the suffrages of reason.

'Messmer perceived at length, that he should never be able to reach, in his native country, the point which he had fixed upon, as the term of his magnetical career. The Germans began to discredit his pompous claims; but it was only after repeated failures in some important promised cures, that he found himself under the necessity of seeking protection in Paris. There he met with a most flattering reception, being caressed, and in a manner adored, by a nation which has ever been extravagantly fond of every thing new, whimsical, and mysterious. Messmer well knew how to turn this national propensity to his own advantage. He addressed himself particularly to the weak; to such as wished to be considered men of profound knowledge, but who, when they are compelled to be silent from real ignorance, take refuge under the impenetrable shield of mystery. The fashionable levity, the irresistible curiosity, and the peculiar turn of the Parisians, ever solicitous to have something interesting for conversation, to keep their active imagination in play, were exactly suited to the genius and talents of the inventor of Animal Magnetism. We need not wonder, therefore, if he availed himself of their moral and physical character, to ensure easy entrance to his doctrines, and success to his pretended experiments: in fact, he found friends and admirers, wherever he made his appearance.

'What splendid promises! what rich prospects! Messmer, the greatest of philosophers, the most virtuous of men, the physician and saviour of mankind, charitably opens his arms to all his fellow-mortals, who stand in need of comfort and assistance. No wonder that the cause of Magnetism, under such a zealous apostle, rapidly gained ground, and obtained every day large additions to the number of its converts. To the gay, the nervous, and the dissipated of all ranks and ages, it held out the most flattering promises. Men of the first respectability interested themselves in behalf of this new philosophy; they anticipated, in idea, the more happy and more vigorous race to proceed, as it were by enchantment, from the wonderful impulsive powers of Animal Magnetism. Nay, even the French Government was so far seduced by these flattering appearances, as to offer the German Adventurer *thirty thousand livres* for the communication of his secret art. He appears, however, to have understood his own interest better than thus to dispose of his hypothetical property, which upon a more accurate investigation might be excepted against, as consisting of unfair articles of purchase. He consequently returned the following answer to the credulous French Ministers:—"That Dr. M. considered his art of too great importance, and the abuses it might lead to, too dangerous for him at present to make it public; that he must therefore reserve to himself the time of its publication, and mode of introducing it to general use and observation; that he would first take proper measures to initiate or prepare the minds of men, by exciting in them a susceptibility of this great power; and that he would then undertake to communicate his secret gradually, which he meant to do without hope of reward."

'Messmer,

'Messmer, too politic to part with his secret for so small a premium, had a better prospect in view; and his apparent disinterestedness and hesitation served only to sound an over-curious public; to allure more victims to his delusive practices; and to retain them more firmly in their implicit belief. Soon after this, we find Messmer easily prevailed upon to institute a private society, into which none were admitted but such as bound themselves by a vow to perpetual secrecy. These pupils he agreed to instruct in his important mysteries, on condition of each paying him a fee of *one hundred louis*. In the course of six months, having had not fewer than three hundred such pupils, he realized a fortune of *thirty thousand louis*. It appears, however, that his disciples did not long adhere to their engagement: we find them separating gradually from their professor, and establishing schools for the propagation of his system, with a view, no doubt, to reimburse themselves for their expences in the acquisition of the magnetising art. But few of them having clearly understood the enigmatic terms and mysterious doctrines of their foreign master, every new adept exerted himself to excel his fellow-labourers, in additional explanations and inventions: others, who did not possess, or could not spare the sum of one hundred louis, were industriously employed in attempts to discover the secret by their own ingenuity; and thus arose a great variety of magnetical sects. At length, however, Messmer's authority became suspected; his pecuniary acquisitions were now notorious, and our *humane* and *disinterested philosopher* was assailed with critical and satirical animadversions from every quarter. The futility of his process for medical purposes, as well as the bad consequences it might produce in a moral point of view, soon became topics of common conversation, and at length excited even the apprehensions of government. One dangerous effect of the magnetic associations was, that young voluptuaries began to employ this art, to promote their libidinous and destructive designs.

'As soon as matters had taken this serious turn, the French Government, much to its credit, deputed four respectable and unprejudiced men, to whom were afterwards added four others of great learning and abilities, to inquire into, and appreciate the merits of the new discovery of animal magnetism. These philosophers, among whom we find the illustrious names of Franklin and Lavoisier, recognized indeed very surprising and unexpected phenomena in the physical state of magnetised individuals; but they gave it as their opinion, that the power of imagination, and not animal magnetism, had produced these effects. Sensible of the superior influence, which the imagination can exert on the human body, when it is effectually wrought upon, they perceived, after a number of experiments and facts frequently repeated, that *Contact* or Touch, *Imagination*, *Imitation*, and *excited Sensibility*, were the real and *sole* causes of those phenomena, which had so much confounded the illiterate, the credulous, and the enthusiastic; that this boasted magnetic element had no real existence in nature; consequently that Messmer himself was either an arrant Impostor, or a deceived Fanatic'—

'The French Count of St. Germain made large sums, by vending an artificial Tea, chiefly composed of Yellow-Saunders, Senna-leaves,

and Fennel-seed; puffing it off by the specious name of *Tea for prolonging life.* It was once swallowed with great avidity all over the continent; but its celebrity was short-lived, and its promised beneficial effects were never realized.

'Another impudent Adventurer, the *Chevalier* D'Ailhoud, presented the world with a Powder, which met with so large and rapid a sale, that he was very soon enabled to purchase a whole *Comté.* Instead, however, of adding to the means of securing health and long life, this famous powder is well known to produce constant indisposition, and at length to cause a most miserable death; being compounded of certain drugs, which are clearly of a poisonous nature, although slow in their operation. And yet there are on the continent, even to this day, several respectable families who persist in the use of this deleterious powder, from an ill-judged partiality for its inventor.'—

'It is no less astonishing than true, that in the year 1794, a Count Thun, at Leipzig, pretended to perform miraculous cures on gouty, hypochondriac, and hysterical patients, merely by the imposition of his sacred hands. He could not, however, raise many disciples in a place, that abounds with Sceptics and Unbelievers.'

We were much pleased with the following account of a new institution in Germany, for the prevention of premature interment:

'Houses for the reception of persons apparently dead have been, at length, erected in various parts of Germany, in Berlin, Jena, Coburg, &c. This idea, at the first view of it, may to some appear whimsical; but those who know the extent of the power of vitality, and the almost infinite modifications of which that power is susceptible, will not ridicule a proposal, which originated in motives of prudence and humanity. Into these houses every inhabitant of the town, or district, has a right to send the body of a deceased person, on paying a trifling sum per night, towards the expences of the institution. Here the body is deposited on a couch, lightly covered, and provided with a string fastened to the hand, which pulls a bell on the top of the house. A watchman is appointed to receive and register the bodies brought into the house, and to give the alarm, if necessary. This, to say the least of it, is no small convenience to families in a large city, crowded into narrow apartments, with a number of children, who must necessarily suffer from the pestiferous exhalations of dead bodies. But this is not the principal advantage attending such establishments: it is unquestionably a great satisfaction to the relatives of the deceased, to be assured that every means have been used to preserve from the most dreadful of all deaths, a friend whose memory they revere.'

This publication will prove a safe and useful guide, to those who regard a rational attention to their health as an object of importance; and the 3d edition is, in several respects, improved: but, as we have already hinted, some farther alteration is still requisite, before the work can be thoroughly recommended to *general* use.

Fer. Art.

ART. VIII. *A Familiar Treatise on the Physical Education of Children*, during the early Period of their Lives. Being a Compendium addressed to all Mothers who are seriously concerned for the Welfare of their Offspring. Translated from the German of Christian Augustus Struve, M. D. &c. To which are prefixed Three Introductory Lectures on the same Subject. By A. F. M. Willich, M. D. 8vo. pp. 450. 8s. Boards. Murray and Highley, 1801.

THERE is a sort of books, as well as of men, which it is difficult to characterize specifically: they are good, as far as they contain nothing absolutely erroneous; yet they reach no excellence, and challenge no distinction:—but this class of intelligence, though valuable in its rank in Society, is not intitled to commendation in literature. If three-fourths of the world were composed of the *good kind of men*, who should act and think alike under similar circumstances, Society would be much better constituted than it now is: but the multiplication of middling authors, who merely compile, and republish the sentiments of preceding writers, is an evil which threatens the existence of the Republic of Letters.

A number of sensible observations are certainly to be found in the volume before us, but many of them are so obvious that they might have been spared; and for the sake of the others it was hardly worth while to write a large book. Dr. Struve proceeds too much on the starving plan; and we cannot agree with him in prohibiting our young friends from eating dumplings and potatoes. Pastry, too, is prohibited! We have not so completely forgotten the pleasures of hot apple-pye as to join in this proscription, though rich pastry may not be the most wholesome of all food. In the following instance, the unrelenting Dr. Struve has surely condemned pastry for *faults not its own*:—'Experience (he says) every day confirms that, after eating an *immoderate portion* of cakes in the forenoon, the appetite for dinner is spoiled; because this food enfeebles the digestive organs, and renders them unfit to perform their offices.' It appears to us that the appetite must have been impaired in this case, as it usually is, by the *quantity* of food previously swallowed. It would be just as reasonable to represent roast-beef as unhealthy, because, after having eaten two or three pounds of it, a man generally feels his appetite spoiled for the afternoon. Dinner-time is a relative term; it may imply any hour between noon and night; and we conceive that whoever sits down at table with a stomach full of cake will make a bad dinner, without having reason for decrying the food with which he had previously gorged himself. We shall even venture a little farther, and shall say that it is better to let chil-

dren eat when they are hungry, and make small meals at several intervals, than to keep them fasting till the clock strikes, and then allow them to make a large dinner at one sitting. Their digestion is more rapid than that of adults; their activity is more constantly exerted; the demand for a supply of food is therefore quicker in their systems, and they bear fasting worse than grown persons. If they are supplied with simple food, therefore, they should be permitted to take it whenever their inclination prompts them.—In this part of the book, Dr. Struve really plays the part of Cervantes's Tirteafuera *, and we tremble lest he should become the oracle of boarding-schools. We cannot admire those Medical Puritans, who

> " Quarrel with mince-pyes, and disparage
> Their best and dearest friend, plum-porridge,
> Fat Pig, and Goose itself oppose,
> And blaspheme Custard through the Nose †."

We experience many surfeits on thin literary food; and we imagine that the reader will soon depart from this compilation, *Conviva uti satur.*

Fer.

ART. IX. *Asthenology; or, the Art of preserving Feeble Life;* and of supporting the Constitution under the Influence of Incurable Diseases. By Christian Augustus Struve, M. D. Translated from the German by William Johnston. 8vo. pp. 430. 8s. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1801.

IF we bestow a shorter notice on this publication than might have been expected from its size and subject, it must be imputed to the great importance which the author attaches to the Brunonian doctrine, though often an opponent of that system; and which leads him into discussions totally uninteresting to readers in this country.—Respecting the scope of his book, we shall quote his own account:

'§ 5. Asthenology, in regard to its theory, and the application of it as an art to maintain feeble life, is distinguished not only from the macrobiotic art, or that of prolonging human life, of which it forms a subordinate part (*asthenomacrobiotic*), but also from the antiasthenic art of healing, or *asthenotherapia*, which is employed in removing weakness, and restoring the lost powers and health. The art of maintaining feeble life leaves to these the direct strengthening method; and has for its object merely to preserve and prolong the existence. It extends its aim farther than the direct art of healing, and is therefore active, when the common physician deserts the patient, and declares his malady to be incurable. In regard to its

---

* Don Quixote. † Hudibras.

object,

object, the maintaining and prolonging life in the asthenic state, it comes within the boundaries of both sciences, and endeavours to maintain feeble life, rescued from apparent death. It tries also how far it is possible to operate a direct cure in cases of asthenia; and when no radical method of cure is applicable, relieves by the palliative method the most urgent symptoms, and exerts itself to prolong, for a certain period, that life which it is not able to preserve.'

We are sorry to differ from Dr. Struve in the very commencement of his Asthenogeny, or doctrine of feebleness: he observes,

'The naturalists and physicians of the present period, by their indefatigable researches, have made great progress in the discovery of that all-powerful principle, which I shall call the vital principle. This principle we know exists; but with its essence we are unacquainted.'

This is so far from being an accurate statement, that it is at this moment undecided whether a vital principle exists in man, independent of mind; and if we be ignorant of its essence, we have no reason for priding ourselves on any *discoveries* relating to it.—The Doctor then proceeds with the supposition of a vital principle pervading all bodies, and producing different phænomena, according to the diversity of organization in its subjects; and he next examines the stimulants which excite this principle. Instead of the Brunonian phrase, *indirect debility*, this author substitutes *confined activity of the vital power*; with what advantage, we cannot perceive. A man set in the stocks may be said to have the activity of the vital power confined, yet he may be in no respect debilitated.

We shall not attempt to follow Dr. Struve through the rest of the volume; which may be of use to German readers, but which an English student will find very unimportant, as it contains no new views of facts, nor any improvements of practice. At the same time, however, that we are compelled to speak in such terms of this work, we must do Dr. Struve the justice of adding, that it is at least free from the medical fanaticism which at present disfigures so many continental productions.

Fer.

ART. X. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of King's Bench*, with Tables of the Names of Cases and principal Matters. By Edward Hyde East, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Vol. I. containing the Cases in the Forty-first Year of George III. 1800—1801. Royal 8vo. pp. 740. 1l. 3s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1801.

THE cases determined in the Court of King's Bench have been reported by Mr. Durnford and the author of the present

present publication conjointly, from Michaelmas Term 1785 to Trinity Term 1800, both inclusive, and are comprehended in eight folio volumes, which are now universally denominated the *Term Reports*. Of the different parts of this work, as they appeared, we have given accounts; and in our 34th volume N. S. we expressed our regret that the profession and the public were no longer to be benefited by the exertions of Mr. Durnford in this department. Mr. East, however, notwithstanding the difficulty of the task, has now undertaken it alone and unassisted; and the volume before us, which contains the cases determined in four terms, is a proof of his diligence and attention.

As we have on former occasions expatiated at considerable length on the merits of the performance, of which the subject of this article must be considered in the light of a continuation, and as the manner of reporting in both is the same, we shall not detain our readers by any more preliminary observations: but we must in the present instance extend our customary notice of productions of this kind, by presenting to them a case which is interesting to the literary as well as to the professional man, and is connected both in subject and principle with the case of *Beckford* against *Hood*, transcribed in our 27th vol. N. S. p. 310. It was there determined that an author, whose work is pirated before the expiration of twenty-eight years from the first publication of it, may maintain an action on the case for damages against the offending party, although that work was not entered at *Stationer's Hall*, and was first published without the name of the author affixed. The case of *Cary* against *Longman* and *Rees*, B. R. E. 41 Geo. III. has decided that an action lies to recover damages for pirating *the new corrections and additions to an old work.*

'This was an action on the case for pirating a book of the plaintiff's. The first count of the declaration stated, that the plaintiff was the author of a certain *book* intitled, "*Cary*'s New Itinerary, or an accurate Delineation of the great Roads both direct and cross throughout *England* and *Wales*, &c. from an actual Admeasurement made by Command of his Majesty's Postmaster-General," &c.; and that being the author of the said book within fourteen years last past he had published the same for sale, &c. That the defendants intending to deprive the plaintiff of the profit thereof, and of the benefit of his copy-right, injuriously published and exposed to sale divers copies of a certain book intitled, "A new and accurate Description of all the direct and principal Roads, &c. from a late actual Admeasurement made by Command of his Majesty's Postmaster General," &c. *which same book had before that time been wrongfully and injuriously copied from the said book of the plaintiff*, without his consent, &c. The second count laid it thus; *great part of which*

which said book had been before that time wrongfully and injuriously copied and pirated *from the said book* of the plaintiff, without his consent, &c. The third count laid, that the plaintiff was the *proprietor* of *Cary*'s Itinerary, &c. The sixth count laid, that the plaintiff had the sole right of printing certain matters relating to the roads of this kingdom, &c. first published within fourteen years last past in a certain book of the plaintiff's called, &c.

'At the trial before Lord *Kenyon* at *Westminster*, it appeared that the original foundation of both the plaintiff's and defendants' books was a work first published in 1771, by Mr. *Patterson*, the copyright of which in 1788 (the author being then living) became vested in Mr. *Newbery*. This work had gone through several editions, the 11th of which was published in 1796. In 1797 the plaintiff was employed by the Postmaster-General to make an actual survey of the principal roads; and the book published by him with their permission contained many material corrections of and additions to the last edition of the original work by *Patterson*. The principal of these consisted in some corrections of distances by the actual surveys; in an admeasurement of the distances from inn to inn in the several post towns, in addition of those from one town to another; in an index to the roads more copious than the former one; in an additional number of gentlemen's seats by the road side; in a rejection of some routes, and an addition of many others. On the other hand, the work published afterwards by the defendants as the 12th edition of the original work by *Patterson* appeared to have been copied, nine tenths of it, verbatim from the plaintiff's improvements, and many of the alterations merely colourable. After verdict for the plaintiff,

'*Gibbs* moved for a new trial on the ground that the stat. 8 *Ann. c.* 19. *s.* 1., granting the copy-right to authors for a certain time, only enacts, "that the *author of any book* and his assigns shall have the sole liberty of printing *such book* for 14 years," &c. And though he could not deny that the defendants had copied the alterations of and additions to the original work, introduced by the plaintiff in his Itinerary, in the same manner as he himself had copied the original work, yet he could not be considered as the *author of the book* within the meaning of the statute, the greater part of it having been before published by another person, and to which the plaintiff had no title.

'Lord Kenyon C. J. Certainly the plaintiff had no title on which he could found an action to that part of his book which he had taken from Mr. *Patterson*'s; but it is as clear that he had a right to his own additions and alterations, many of which were very material and valuable; and the defendants are answerable at least for copying those parts in their book. That the defendants had pirated from the plaintiff's book was proved in the clearest manner at the trial; nine tenths at least of the alterations and additions were copied verbatim. The printed work itself was made use of by the defendants at the press, some of it clipped with scissars; with a few slips of paper containing MS. additions interspersed here and there, and some of these merely nominal and colourable. The courts of justice have been long labouring under an error, if an author have no copy-

right

right in any part of a work unless he have an exclusive right to the whole book. I remember it was thought otherwise in the case of Mr. *Mason* (*Mason* v. *Murray*). Several of Mr. *Gray*'s Poems had been for many years before published, which were collected by Mr. *Mason*, and published with the addition of several new poems: but though he had not a property in the whole book, yet the defendant having copied the whole, the Lord Chancellor * granted an injunction against him as to the publication with the additional pieces. So Lord *Hardwicke* in another case † granted an injunction to restrain the

---

' * Qu. Lord Bathurst?

' † *Tonson* v. *Walker and another*, 30*th April* 1752, cited in *Millar* v. *Taylor*, 4 *Burr.* 2325. 2353. and in *Tonson* v. *Collins*, 2 *Blac.* 332.

' Vide *Motte* v. *Falkner*, *Nov.* 1735, before Lord *Talbot*, cited in 4 *Burr.* 2353. and in 1 *Blac. Rep.* 331. and *Carnan* v. *Bowles*, 2 *Bro. Ch. Cas.* 80. relative to the original publication in question.

' SAYRE and others *v.* MOORE, Sittings after Hil. 1785, at Guildhall, cor. Lord Mansfield C. J.—This was an action for pirating sea charts; which are protected by statute 17 *Geo.* 3. *c.* 57. The charts which had been copied were four in number, which *Moore* had made into one large map.

' It appeared in evidence that the defendant had taken the body of his publication from the work of the plaintiffs, but that he had made many alterations and improvements thereupon. It was also proved that the plaintiffs had originally been at a great expence in procuring materials for these maps. *Delarochett*, an eminent geographer and engraver, had been employed by the plaintiffs in the engraving of them. He said that the present charts of the plaintiffs were such an improvement on those before in use as made them an original work. Besides their having been laid down from all the charts and maps extant, they were improved by many manuscript journals and printed books and manuscript relations of travellers: he had no doubt the materials must have cost the plaintiffs between 3000*l.* and 4000*l.*, and that the defendant's chart was taken from these of the plaintiffs with a few alterations. In answer to a question from the Court, Whether the defendant had pirated from the drawings and papers, or from the engravings? he answered, from the engravings. *Winterfelt*, an engraver, said he was actually employed by the defendant to take a draft of the Gulph Passage (in the West Indies) from the plaintiffs' map.

' Many witnesess were called on behalf of the defendant, amongst others a Mr. Stephenson and Admiral Campbell. Mr. Stephenson said he had carefully examined the two publications; that there were very important differences between them, much in favour of the defendant. That the plaintiffs' maps were founded upon no principle; neither upon the principle of Mercator, nor the plain chart, but upon a corruption of both. That near the Equator the plain chart would do very well, but that as you go further from the Equator, there you must have recourse to the Mercator. That there were

the defendants from printing *Milton*'s Paradise Lost, with Dr. *Newton*'s Notes; although there was no doubt but that they were at liberty

---

very material errors in the plaintiffs' map. That they were in many places defective in pointing out the latitude and longitude, which is extremely essential in navigating. That most of these, as well as errors in the soundings, were corrected by the defendant. Admiral Campbell observed, that there were only two kinds of charts; one called a plain chart, which was now very little used; the other, which is the best, called the Mercator, and which is very accurate in the degrees of latitude and longitude. That this distinction was very necessary in the higher latitudes, but in places near the Equator it made little or no difference. That the plaintiffs' maps were upon no principle recognized among seamen, and no rules of navigation could be applied to them; and they were therefore entirely useless.

'Lord *Mansfield* C. J. The rule of decision in this case is a matter of great consequence to the country. In deciding it we must take care to guard against two extremes equally prejudicial; the one, that men of ability, who have employed their time for the service of the community, may not be deprived of their just merits, and the reward of their ingenuity and labour; the other, that the world may not be deprived of improvements, nor the progress of the arts be retarded. The act that secures copy-right to authors guards against the piracy of the words and sentiments; but it does not prohibit writing on the same subject. As in the case of histories and dictionaries: In the first, a man may give a relation of the same facts, and in the same order of time; in the latter an interpretation is given of the identical same words. In all these cases the question of fact to come before a jury is, Whether the alterations be colourable or not? there must be such a similitude as to make it probable and reasonable to suppose that one is a transcript of the other, and nothing more than a transcript. So in the case of prints, no doubt different men may take engravings from the same picture. The same principle holds with regard to charts; whoever has it in his intention to publish a chart may take advantage of all prior publications. There is no monopoly of the subject here, any more than in the other instances; but upon any question of this nature the jury will decide whether it be a servile imitation or not. If an erroneous chart be made, God forbid it should not be corrected even in a small degree, if it thereby become more serviceable and useful for the purposes to which it is applied. But here you are told that there are various and very material alterations. This chart of the plaintiffs is upon a wrong principle, inapplicable to navigation. The defendant therefore has been correcting errors, and not servilely copying. If you think so, you will find for the defendant; if you think it is a mere servile imitation, and pirated from the other, you will find for the plaintiffs.

Verdict for defendant.

'Dr. Trusler *v.* Murray, Sittings after Mich. 1789, cor. Lord Kenyon.—This was an action for pirating a book of Chronology. It was proved by the plaintiff, that though some parts of the defend-

liberty to have published the original book itself without the notes.——*Per Curiam,* Rule refused.'

At the end of the case *Smith* against *Buchanan*, Mich. 41 Geo. III. p. 12. the following note appears to be rather inaccurate:

'In *Pedder* v. *M'Master*, 8 *T. Rep.* 609. the Court refused to discharge a defendant out of custody who was arrested at the suit of a creditor resident here, on an allegation that the debt was contracted at *Hamburgh*, and that the defendant had become a bankrupt and obtained his certificate there, and that the plaintiff might have proved his debt under the commission: for the Court said that as the plaintiff was not resident in *Hamburgh* at the time of the bankruptcy, they would not decide the question in a summary way, but put the defendant to plead his bankruptcy and discharge. The defendant accordingly filed such a plea, which the Court held to be informally pleaded; and the matter never came on again.'

The latter part of the note, from the words '*for the Court said,*' belongs not to the case of *Pedder* and *M'Master*, as Mr. East intimates, but to a case in the Common Pleas, reported by the name of *Quin* against *Keefe* in 2 *H. Bl.* 553. **S.R.**

ART. XI. *The Naval Guardian.* By Charles Fletcher, M. D. Author of "A Maritime State considered as to the Health of Seamen," &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Chapman. 1800.

'Too much cannot be done for the British Navy;' says this author;—'as they guard us, it is but fair that we guard them.' He has therefore written a number of short essays, connected under the title of the Naval Guardian, the greater portion of which relate to topics that principally concern the British Navy: such as, advice to officers and seamen, as well with respect to their health as their conduct; naval anecdotes;

---

ant's work were different, yet in general it was the same, and particularly from page 20 to 34 it was a literal copy.

'Lord *Kenyon* C. J. was of opinion, that if such were the fact the plaintiff must recover, though other parts of the work were original. He said Lord Bathurst had been of that opinion, and he thought rightly, with respect to the publication of some original poems by Mr. Mason, together with others which had been before published. And the like with respect to an Abridgment of Cook's Voyage round the World. The main question here was, Whether in substance the one work is a copy and imitation of the other; for undoubtedly in a chronological work the same facts must be related. The parties having received his lordship's opinion, it was agreed to refer the consideration of the two books to an arbitrator, who would have leisure to compare them.'

remarks

remarks on sea engagements, and on singular cases adjudged by Courts Martial, &c. Occasionally, also, the author has wandered into history, politics, poetry, and criticism. The Naval Guardian, he says, is calculated for the meridian of the quarter deck rather than that of the forecastle. As it 'lays claim to originality, and as it shall be studied throughout the whole, by one connected series of *novel* and interesting events, to unite as much as possible the *utile dulci*, conveyed too through the easy and, I trust, not inelegant style of literary correspondence; it may be hoped that the work will be read with satisfaction, not only by every description of officers in the sea service, but by the public at large,' &c.—The language of this production, however, is sometimes marked by inaccuracy, and by a degree of obscurity and embarrassment; in part, we imagine, occasioned by haste in printing. Words of unintended import frequently occur, instead of such as are too obvious to have been missed on the slightest revisal. *Ex gr.* 'I would [should] deem my work incomplete, were I to omit *every* means for the improvement,' &c. 'I have too much veneration *than* to suppose.'—'Such an hemorrhage ensued as *gave* [for *left*] but little hopes of life.' We meet with many similar instances.

In the course of some observations on the Impress service, we find that Dr. F. believes pressing to be a necessary evil: but he recommends, in order to facilitate the manning of the navy, that encouragement should be offered for recruits, who have enlisted for the army, to enter into the Marine Corps; and also encouragement for marines to enter as seamen. From a plan of this nature, benefit might no doubt be derived, whenever men are more wanted for the navy than for the army.

The author has introduced some specimens of his own poetry, and sketches of two dramatic compositions. As the latter are in a style at least uncommon, if not original, we shall present a few extracts from the Doctor's account of one of them:

'Seriously ruminating, *casting about* as you say, but not finding any thing answerable to my hopes of succeding in the abolition of pressing, I actually sat down and composed a play of five acts,—proposing to myself, that whenever it should be brought forward, a part of the profits arising from the representation should be appropriated for the relief of domestic distresses occasioned by the hardship of pressing.—But *patronage*, that golden key to success, was wanting:—the *managers* are permitted to be the sole judges of the merit of dramatic composition: the result of which is, the present degeneracy of the stage, by introducing very rarely, but such matter as is a reflection on the public taste. A glare fallacious, thrown on

fancy's eye to bribe the judgement off; *that* once removed, the charm dissolves in air, "into thin air," &c.

'To stem this torrent of stage degeneracy,' Dr. F. proposes that a society should be commissioned, 'with powers not only to investigate the political propriety, but dramatic merit, of all works intended for the stage: that upon having passed this ordeal, they should be sent to the theatres, with *orders* that they be got up, and with expedition proportioned to their merit.'

The play, of which the ill success with the managers gave rise to the foregoing observations, is intitled *The British Seaman.* It would require too much room, were we to give an account of the plot; and we hope that the reader will be satisfied with a quotation or two, which will enable him to appreciate the author's talent for dramatic composition:

'*Officer.*—Saw you the Admiral, Sir, this way?
Mr. Waters.—He is this very instant gone on board.
His mind does labour with some mighty news,
Too vast, too big for speech to give it birth.
My mind misgives me else, but something ill
Hangs o'er this isle;
————————Invasion, ha!
It rings a deadly peal in Fancy's ear;' &c.

'*Oldboy.*—Instant I spurr'd some miles along the shore,
To where I knew the Admiral must pass;
And just as I took my post he there arrived,
A fearful cannonade now open'd on mine ear,
Such as before I never might have heard!
————————————A warlike ardor
Held me in convulse; how long, I cannot tell:
But when reviv'd, they still were at it, hot!
I long'd to be on board, and argued thus—
The period of thy life, *Oldboy*, must soon expire;
Would'st die in character, then go on board,
If not to fight, to animate at least.
Just to my wish, a boat now drifting in,
I paddled off through shot as thick as hail!
Oh it was great!' &c.

Dr. F. announces, in a note, that 'an essay upon genius and taste, principally applied to the present state of our theatres, will shortly make its appearance.' What will not our readers expect from it, after having perused the preceding lines?

These volumes are dedicated by permission to the Lords of the Admiralty, and it is but just to say that this favor was merited by the writer's zeal for the navy. They contain, indeed, a number of remarks and anecdotes, a perusal of which may be beneficial to the officer and to the service. The medical branch, it may be supposed, is not overlooked.

Capt. B....y. ART.

ART. XII. *An Inquiry into the Knowlege of the Antient Hebrews, concerning a Future State.* By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1801.

IT does not appear to us that this pamphlet manifests the usual acuteness of Dr. Priestley. On the contrary, all his arguments are founded on presumptions and supposed improbabilities. For example; the Doctor says: 'that there is a state after death, and that it is more or less a state of retribution, ever has been and is now the belief of all the rest of mankind—can it be supposed then that the antient Hebrews were the only exception.' Again: 'since there is no evidence of a future state for man, any more than for other animals, from natural appearances, the doctrine of a future state *must* have come originally from revelation.—But is it at all probable, that the nation, which has been most favoured with divine revelations, should be more ignorant of this most important of all truths than any other people?'—'To Abraham, Isaac and Jacob, a doctrine known to the Egyptians, Hindoos, and Chinese, could not be unknown, or not accurately understood.'

Again:

'The Hebrews had more just ideas of the moral attributes and moral government of God than any other people. They considered the Supreme Being not only as the maker but as the righteous governor of the world; that being righteous himself, he was a lover and a rewarder of righteousness in his creatures; and yet they could not but see, yea they expressly acknowlege, that this his preference of the righteous was not always manifested in this life; and they represent the wicked not only as frequently living, but as dying in great prosperity, while the righteous suffered much affliction. They must *necessarily* therefore have believed, that there was a life of retribution after this, in which the ways of God would be justified, notwithstanding any present unpromising appearances. In these circumstances, their adherence to virtue *must* have been supported by their faith in a life to come.'

Such is the author's mode of reasoning throughout the whole of the first section.

In Section II. Dr. P. collects what he calls *allusions to a future judgment in the books of the Old Testament.* These he finds in Ps. i. 5.—ix. 7.—l. 1. 4—lxvii. 3.—xcvi. 11.—xcviii. 9. Eccles. iii. 17.—viii. 6.—xi. 5.—xii. 13. in none of which, we confess, can we see what the Doctor sees;—nor indeed in any other passage quoted by him from books written before the Balylonish captivity.

In Sect. IV. the author endeavours to shew that the antient Hebrews not only believed in a state of future rewards and punishments, but that they believed in *a resurrection of the dead:* for which purpose he produces Ps. vi. 5.—lxxxviii. 10.—

cxv. 17.—Is. xxvi. 19.—Ezek. xxxvii. 12.—Dan. xii. 1, 2, 3. and some other passages of equal force; that is, in our estimation, of none at all.

Sect. v. is devoted to the consideration of *the doctrine of the book of Job;* particularly the famous passage, xix. 23. which, Dr. P. thinks, strongly supports his hypothesis.

The subject of Sect. vi. is *the fate of the wicked at the resurrection:* of which the Doctor's conclusion is; 'there is therefore reason to hope, that notwithstanding the *destruction*, with which the wicked in general, like the idolatrous Israelites, are threatened, mercy may be shewn to them at a distant period, provided the punishment denoted by the phrase *destruction* have its proper effect upon them.'

The essay closes with *an attempt to explain the 18th chapter of Isaiah:* the predictions in which cannot, Dr. P. thinks, relate to Egypt, as Bishop Lowth and most other interpreters suppose, but to Assyria.—We give the Doctor's translation of the whole passage, for the entertainment of our Biblical readers.

"Woe to the land with extended wings, beyond the rivers of Cush, which sends ambassadors by sea, in vessels of bulrushes on the waters. Go swift messengers to a nation oppressed and afflicted, to a people wonderful from the beginning, and to this day, a nation dispersed and oppressed, and whose country the floods have destroyed. Yea all ye who inhabit the world, and dwell upon the earth, when the standard shall be lifted up upon the mountains behold, and when the trumpet shall be sounded hear. For thus has Jehovah said to me, I will sit still, and regard my fixed habitation, as the clear heat after rain, and as the dewy cloud in the heat of harvest. "Surely before the vintage, while the bud is perfect, and the blossom is becoming a swelling grape, he will destroy the leaders with a sword, and the strong ones he will destroy and cut off. And they shall be left together for the birds of the air, and the beasts of the earth; and the birds of the air shall be gathered to them, and all the beasts of the earth shall come to them. At that time a gift shall be brought to Jehovah, God of hosts, a nation dispersed and oppressed, from a people wonderful from the beginning, and to this day, whose country the rivers have spoiled, to the place of the name of Jehovah, God of hosts, to the mountains of Sion."

This pamphlet is introduced by a 'preface by the editor,' (who, we imagine from the initials subscribed, is the Rev. T. Lindsey,) in which some account is given of the assiduity with which Dr. Priestley continues his pursuits in theology and in philosophy, principally extracted from some private letters from the Doctor to a friend. One paragraph states the following particulars:

"In

"In my last I think I mentioned to you a young man in this place of an excellent character; who is become a zealous unitarian. By his means chiefly I have now a class of fourteen very promising young men, to whom I have great satisfaction in giving lectures as I used to do in England from my Institutes; And I have also been encouraged to open a place of public worship in a School room near my house where I have a small congregation. Many persons, I was told, would come to hear me, if I would preach out of my own house, and I find it to be so. I principally expound the Scriptures, reading one portion of the Old Testament, and another from the New. I am now reading Isaiah, and the history of the gospels from my Harmony."

G.2.

Perhaps, however, Dr. Priestley may be induced to return to Europe, by the alterations which have lately taken place in the state of public affairs.

Ged.

ART. XIII. *Travels in Greece and Turkey*, undertaken by Order of Louis XVI. and with the Authority of the Ottoman Court. By C. S. Sonnini, Member of several Scientific and Literary Societies. Illustrated by Engravings, and a Map of those Countries. Translated from the French. 4to. pp. 600, and a separate Atlas. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

AT the time when the attention of Europe was eagerly directed towards Egypt, by the extraordinary scenes of which that country had lately been the theatre, the curiosity of the public was much gratified by the appearance of M. Sonnini's Travels through Upper and Lower Egypt. The reception of them, indeed, was just such as might have been expected; or, as the author expresses himself, was such as surpassed his most sanguine hopes. The work was not confined to his own country, but was translated into several languages; and two English editions of it appeared in London *.

By the present publication, the translator observes, M. Sonnini fulfils his enagement to give an account of the other countries which he visited, after his Egyptian expedition; and we agree with him that these additional volumes will in no respect disappoint the hopes which were excited by a perusal of the former. We have been equally gratified by accompanying him in his travels through Greece and Turkey: in which similar intelligence and judgment, with equal brilliancy of imagination and of colouring, are every where conspicuous; and which, we doubt not, will prove alike acceptable to all who seek for information concerning these interesting parts of the globe, with regard to natural productions, to manners, to

---

* See M. Rev. N. S. vols. xxix, xxx, and xxxi.

politics, or to commerce. We were, indeed, already in possession of many accounts of the islands of the Archipelago: but, besides that they have undergone great alterations since those descriptions were published, it should be considered that it is impossible for any individual to take notice of every thing; that one man attends to that which escaped the observation of his predecessor; that, as painters have their several methods in their representations of a particular subject, so every observer has his own manner of viewing and of representing what he has seen; and that hence the same object may be perceived in different relations, and the same thing described in an interesting manner, by different individuals. The present author gives a very entertaining account of his adventures; and we believe that it is a faithful one, allowing for some embellishments in which travellers are often apt to indulge, and to which the French idiom offers additional temptations.

Our readers will not, perhaps, be displeased to see the comparison which M. Sonnini draws between the people of Greece and those of Egypt:

'The sea of Greece is seen to spread its waves, whose expansion is retarded and opposed by an immense number of islands, on the inclined shores of Egypt; a space rather short separates the two countries on which Antiquity prides herself; and, after having visited that which passes for the cradle of the arts and sciences, and from which the Greeks derived a part of their knowledge, I resolved to see also the country which may be called the cradle of the graces and of good taste. There, a burning climate does not, as in Egypt, dry up a soil which ceases to produce, as soon as active industry ceases to cultivate it, and cover it with an abundant moisture. There, we see not those vast, sandy, and arid plains, those naked and heated rocks, forsaken by nature, and which man does not traverse without considerable difficulty and danger. That frightful nakedness by which habitable Egypt will ever be circumscribed and confined, disfigures not the land of Greece. There, the temperature is mild, the mountains are covered by forests, the atmosphere is cooled by rains, the vallies are watered by numerous streams, and the soil may be adapted to several kinds of culture.

'If, from the comparison of the physical state of the two countries we pass to that of the men who inhabit them, we shall find no resemblance but in the despotism by which they were both enslaved. The Copt or the native of Egypt, whose character partakes of the dryness and rudeness of the climate, is short and heavy; his head is big, but empty; his face is broad and flat; his complexion is sallow and dark; and his countenance is mean. His disposition is gloomy and melancholy; his treachery is the more dangerous, as it is, in a manner, more concentered; having no taste for the arts, no flight of curiosity leads him to instruction; sedentary, because he has no vivacity in his mind, he seeks not to be acquainted with what surrounds him; lazy and slovenly, clownish and ignorant, unfeeling and superstitious,

superstitious, he has no longer any remembrance, nor even any trace remaining, of the greatest of his ancestors.

'What a difference between this nation entirely degenerated, and that which still inhabits the beautiful countries of Greece! Under a pure sky, in a wholesome, temperate atmosphere, impregnated with the sweetest emanations, on a soil which nature decks with flowers, and clothes with the verdure of an eternal spring, or which may be enriched with crops of every sort, or with delicious fruits, we must expect, among the men, to meet only with amenity of manners and sweetness of disposition. I am speaking of the men whose generations there succeed each other without interruption; for the ignorant and untractable usurper may, by his stupid ferocity, pollute the most happy climate, the most smiling country; and ages are required for their influence to temper, in a perceptible manner, the rudeness of his inclinations.

'The man of these charming parts of Greece is of a handsome stature; he carries his head high, his body erect, or rather inclined backward than forward; he is dignified in his carriage, easy in his manners, and nimble in his gait; his eyes are full of vivacity; his countenance is open, and his address agreeable and prepossessing; he is neat and elegant in his clothing; he has a taste for dress, as for every thing that is beautiful; active, industrious, and even enterprising, he is capable of executing great things; he speaks with ease, he expresses himself with warmth; he is acquainted with the language of the passions, and he likewise astonishes by his natural eloquence; he loves the arts, without daring to cultivate them, under the brazen yoke which hangs heavy on his neck; skilful and cunning in trade, he does not always conduct himself in it with that frankness which constitutes its principal basis; and if we still find in modern Greece many of the fine qualities which do honour to the history of antient Greece, it cannot be denied that Superstition, the child of Ignorance and Slavery, greatly tarnishes their lustre; and we also discover in their disposition that fickleness, that pliability, that want of sincerity, in short, that artful turn of mind which borders on treachery, and of which the Greeks of antiquity have been accused *.

'But this obliquity of character fortunately does not extend, or at least is very much weakened, among the women of the same countries. The Greek females are, in general, distinguished by a noble and easy shape, and a majestic carriage. Their features, traced by the hand of Beauty, reflect the warm and profound affections of Sensibility; the serenity of their countenance is that of dignity, without having its coldness or gravity; they are amiable without pretension, decent without sourness, charming without affectation. If, to such brilliant qualities, we add elevation of ideas, warmth of expression, those flights of simple and ingenuous eloquence which

---

'* Every one is acquainted with that famous line which paints so well the character of the Greeks:

"*Timeo Danaos, et Dona ferentes.*"

attract

attract and fascinate, a truly devoted attachment to persons beloved, exactness and fidelity in their duties, we shall have some notion of these privileged beings, with whom Nature, in her munificence, has embellished the earth, and who are not rare in Greece.'

As some subsequent passages also appear to us extremely interesting, especially at this time when so much is said concerning the Turkish empire; as they correspond entirely with what our countryman Mr. Eton has affirmed of the instability of that government; and as they confirm the reflections on this subject by the ingenious M. Chevalier; we shall extract them for the gratification of our readers:

'This amiable and interesting people of Greece are bent under the very heavy yoke of the stern and proud Mussulman; their slavery, like that of the descendants of the ancient Egyptians, is absolute and of long standing. The Copts lived in the brutalized stupor of a debased condition. Never could they have dreamt of breaking their chains, had not the French undertaken their deliverance; and the Greeks, although possessing more energy and means, will never themselves shake off fetters, which, notwithstanding, are to them odious. Should an enterprising genius, the friend of glory and of his country, rise up in the midst of them, and offer to lead them to the conquest of liberty, he would find it difficult to draw round him numerous partisans. Reduced to the simple character of leader of a few insurgents, he would have to fight his own countrymen, and he would end by falling a victim to the treachery of some of them; so much does long slavery blunt energy, corrupt the qualities of the soul, and leave to the vices of weakness and abasement alone freedom of action!

'But should foreign forces, sufficiently imposing to banish fears, which, in weak minds, are inseparable from the uncertainty of success, make their appearance, not with projects of invasion, but as deliverers of Greece, insurrection against tyranny would become general; national activity would display all its resources; cohorts of courageous combatants would be formed on all sides; intelligent and active mariners would cover the sea with fast-sailing vessels, which would rapidly carry succours and troops to all the points of the islands and coasts that would become those of the whole nation; all would second and bless their deliverers. The period when one of the finest countries of the globe, that which is the richest in precious recollections, shall be snatched from Ottoman despotism, is not perhaps far distant. The existence of that vast and monstrous empire of the Turks cannot be of long duration; its incoherent parts shake, and are on the point of falling to pieces; on every side Rebellion waves her standards; the authority of the chief of the empire, disowned and insulted without, scarcely extends beyond the walls of Constantinople; a domination, established on ignorance, cannot resist the contact of knowledge; it will be annihilated with the superstitious barbarism to which it owes its origin; and the most cruel and most improvident tyranny will no longer leave any other traces than

that

that by which the life of all tyrants is followed, the execration of posterity.'

At the idea of a revolution, however, the author starts with horror, on recollecting the calamities which have lately been brought on his own country; and he affirms that nothing but the excess of slavery, under which a nation is oppressed, can for the future justify any attempt to overturn its government.

M. Sonnini then proceeds to paint the flourishing state of the French commerce in the Levant during the war of 1778; its subsequent total ruin, which brought on that of Marseilles; with the causes of these misfortunes, &c. and he represents the authority of the Porte as absolutely extinct in Egypt.

The islands of the Ægean sea are particular objects of our traveller's researches;—those numerous groups of lands and rocks, promiscuously scattered throughout that sea as an eternal monument of its depredations on the Continent, which were divided by the antients into Cyclades and Sporades: denominations now no more remembered, as they at present are known only under the general designation of the islands of the Archipelago. As most of these islands, which are remarkable for the beauty and the fertility of their soil, celebrated by the writers of antiquity, and famed for having given birth to great men, are still important points of establishment, communication, or commerce, we have a great interest in gaining a thorough acquaintance with them.

On his return from Upper Egypt, M. Sonnini arrived for the third time in Alexandria. The extreme circumspection, which he there found Europeans obliged to employ in all their proceedings, no longer allowed ~~time~~ him to hope for any new researches. Accordingly, he soon resolved to quit a tract of sands and ruins, the barren abode of ignorance and barbarism, which the traders of Europe could not occupy without being a prey to perpetual apprehensions and exposed to frequent dangers; while their vessels were liable to shipwreck, in the bad and only harbour that was open to them. He therefore laid aside the long and ample garments in use among the Orientals, and which he had worn during his travels in Egypt, to resume the French uniform; in which, however, he at first found himself very uneasy. He says that he long regretted a dress, not so light indeed, but certainly more grand and decorous, and at the same time better calculated for preserving health; because, not compressing any part of the body, it leaves full liberty for its movements and inflections, for the circulation of the blood and humours, and maintains the suppleness and strength of the muscles and fibres.

The

The island of Cyprus is thus described by M. Sonnini:

'Of all the ancient names of the Island of Cyprus, that which we love to recall to mind, although it forms a strange contrast with its present situation, is *Macaria*, the *Fortunate Island*. For this name it was indebted to the fertility of its soil, the mildness of its climate, the inexpressible beauty of its plains, and the richness of its productions. The imagination of the poets lent new charms to this profusion of the gifts of Nature; they made it the cradle of the mother of the Loves; they consecrated this agreeable idea, by the name of *Cytherea*, and embellished it with all the charms of the most delightful descriptions, with graceful scenes of tenderness and voluptuous enjoyment.

'Over this theatre, in former times consecrated to happiness, to the arts, and to pleasure, at this day reign barbarians, who have transformed it into an abode of destruction and slavery. Superb edifices, elegant temples, where the most beautiful, as well as the most amiable of divinities was adored on altars surrounded by the sweetest and most voluptuous birds, living emblems of love and fidelity, now cover and sadden, with their scatterred remains, places of which they constituted the ornament and glory; and the Turks consume even the very ruins, which they still mutilate, in order to employ the fragments for common and profane purposes. Here, where the Graces reigned, at this day commands an old *mosalem* or governor, who scares them. Under a destructive goverment, agriculture has ceased to enrich with her treasures beautiful plains; and the splendour of an island, formerly *fortunate*, has vanished.

'The riches which it contains in its bosom are more deeply buried by despotism than by the earth with which they are covered. All boring, all search after mines, is strictly prohibited; and copper, formerly so abundant in the island, that the ancients likewise distinguished it by the epithet of *Ærosa*, *Copper Island*, remains useless in the bowels of the mountains that contain it, as well as zinc, tin, iron, and other minerals which rendered it famous.

'Should the Island of Cyprus one day pass from this state of oppression to a political situation more mild and more favourable to its commerce and industry, we shall then search after all these mineral riches, and the working of them will powerfully contribute to revive the ancient splendour of the country in which they are contained; and as changes, so desirable, are, perhaps, not very remote, or at least I love to indulge the hope, it will not be useless to enter here into a few details respecting the nature of these subterraneous treasures.

'Gold, the end and motive of almost all human actions, and which corruption, ever-increasing, will long render the object of the warmest wishes and ardent wants of the greater number, was, as I have said, found in mines in the Island of Cyprus; but they have been for ages abandoned, and tradition can scarcely assign the places where they were found. We must not take in a literal sense, nor above all, refer to our age, a passage of Dapper, who, in his description of the islands of the Archipelago, page 52, asserts that there is in the middle of the island, near the town of Nicosia, as well

well as in the environs of Chrusocco, mines of gold, where workmen are almost continually employed.

'These indications, which Dapper published in 1703, are extracted from another description of the islands of the Archipelago, printed in 1610, the author of which, Thomas Porchachi, had taken them from the ancient writers. Not that, in fact, the gold mines were not in the environs of Chrusocco, a village near the gulf of that name, which occupies the place of Acamantis, an ancient town, one of the most considerable of the island; some were known too in the vicinity of Tamassus, where stands the modern Famagusta, and at the foot of Mount Olympus, in a district celebrated for its wines; but the traces of ancient works have there disappeared, and the veins of a precious metal wait, in order to be discovered and followed anew, the return of a protecting government, which regards not as crimes the strenuous efforts of industry towards useful speculations, to which are attached public prosperity and the affluence of individuals.

'But searching, which would attain with still greater certainty these two objects, that are the constant aim of every government anxious to preserve the esteem of nations and its own existence, would be that which would tend to recover the copper mines, formerly so abundant and so renowned. It is particularly in the territory occupied by a famous city of antiquity, Amathus, the site of which is at present occupied by the ancient Limassol, that the researches ought to be directed; it is in this ditrict, where those metals abound*, that we should again discover that beautiful primitive copper, which Nature herself has purified, and elaborated in large masses, in order to deliver it quite prepared to human industry, and which no longer exists in the exhausted mines of the Old Continent. The copper of Cyprus was, in ancient times, the finest in the world, and its rich and primordial mines furnished the first blocks of that metal, which were brought into use. It was principally sought for the purpose of composing that famous Corinthian brass, a precious mixture of copper, gold, and silver, the proportions of which are unknown to us, and which was in great esteem among the Greeks.

'The species of natural vitriol, the blue or azure vitriol, which still retains the name of *Cyprus vitriol*, was found in abundance in the copper mines of which I have just spoken. The ancient Tamassus furnished a great quantity of it; but the best was drawn from the district of Chrusocco, the vitriol mines of which were still worked towards the end of the seventeenth century.

'The iron mines lie scattered, and in a quantity sufficiently large to supply the wants of the Cypriots and the trade of the neighbouring countries.

'In the rocks is also found a very fine rock-crystal, which is called the *Baffa diamond*, becaused it is procured from the environs of Baffa, a barbarous word, which has taken the place of that of Paphos. The mountains in the vicinity of Cape Cromachiti and of Cape Alexandretta likewise contain some.

'* *Gravidamque Amathunta metallis*, has Ovid said in his Metamorphoses.'

'The

'The bowels of the high mountains contain other riches less important than metallic mines, because they are useful to luxury alone. These are emeralds, amethysts, peridots, opals, &c. The Scythian jasper was reputed the best among the ancients; next came the Cyprian, and lastly, the Egyptian. The river Pedicus, which takes its source in the mountains at no great distance from Nicosia, rolls down, with its limpid waters, fragments of very fine red jasper.

'*Asbestos*, or the incombustible flax of the ancients, is still as plentiful as it was formerly; the quarry which furnishes it is in the mountain of Acamantis, near Cape Chromachiti.

'Talc is common, especially near Larnica, where it is employed for white-washing houses; and there are numerous quarries of plaster. Those of marble afford it in abundance for building. But at present there are scarcely worked any of those, which yield none but a common white marble, of little consistence.

'Of all the treasures which the earth conceals, the Turk, who knows only how to desolate it, allows not the unfortunate islanders any trade but in yellow ochre, umber, and *terre verte*, substances common in Cyprus, and which are employed in coarse painting.

'To the mineral substances, the exportation of which is still permitted, we must add marine salt, which, under the domination of the princes of Europe, was the source of considerable revenues. The great lake, or salt-marsh, in which it is formed, near the hamlet of the Salterns, was, in former times, three leagues in circumference; but the exportation of salt having successively diminished, the lake has been partly drained and cultivated; so that the sea and rain-waters are scarcely any longer collected there but on a space of a league in circuit. The heat of a burning sun accelerates the evaporation of these waters, and leaves exposed a thick crust of salt, which is gathered in the month of September, that is, before the rainy season, and is then heaped up in pyramids. These heaps of salt, in the end, acquire consistence and harden in the air; they even resist the winter rains, and, in the spring, are loaded on board small vessels, which convey them to the neighbouring coasts. The government farms out these natural salterns for a year only; and, agreeably to the plan of discouragement which it has marked out for itself, it clogs with a thousand shackles the extraction and the sale. Accordingly there exists no proportion between what the salterns produced formerly and what they yield at the present day: a few of the country barks suffice for the conveyance of the quantity which enters into the export-trade; whereas the Venetians annually formed of it the cargo of seventy large ships. If the choked-up canals, which form the communication between the lake and the sea, were re-established, the water would cover the same extent of ground that it occupied before, and the lake of the salters would again become one of the most important branches of the trade and revenues of the island.

'What the bowels of the earth contain in riches, is not more than what its surface may yield. The presents of agriculture are not here less numerous nor less brilliant than the less valuable treasures of mineralogy; but both are equally a prey to the brutal combinations of ignorance and barbarism. The produce of a languishing culture

affords the remembrance and the measure of the fertility of which a soil favoured by nature is susceptible, when the heavy and burning hand of tyranny does not succeed in drying it up.

'Olive-trees are much less common here than in past times. Their fruits no longer furnish sufficient oil for the supply of the inhabitants, and what remains of them seems to exist only to attest that olive-oil formed in Cyprus a very considerable branch of commerce. Immense reservoirs, in the form of cisterns, and coated with an impenetrable cement, still subsist in the environs of Larnica. Oil was preserved in these, and, to fill them, a prodigious quantity was required. The soil is so favourable to olive-trees, that some are seen here of such a size that two men, with outstretched arms, would find it difficult to span their circumference. These fine trees, which, in some places, are planted with order and symmetry, are a proof of the antiquity of a culture which cannot be too much encouraged in climates that are suitable to it, as well on account of the great consumption which domestic economy and the arts make of olive-oil, as of the losses which the severe winters of these latter years have occasioned in our plantations.

'Mulberry-trees still form small woods in certain quarters of the island; but their culture is abandoned in several, although it is the most easy of all, since it requires only to conduct water to the foot of each tree, in order to cool it during the burning heats of the summer. Here the bad custom obtains of lopping off the branches of these trees for the purpose of giving their leaves to the silk-worm, the rearing of which is attended with fewer inconveniencies than elsewhere, under a sky which, in the season of gathering them, experiences no variations. The silk-trade, although less flourishing than it was before the invasion of the Turks, is, nevertheless, still of some importance. It is at Famugusta that the market of this commodity is held, and there, are annually sold about twenty thousand bales, of three hundred pounds each. In this quantity is white silk, gold yellow, sulphur yellow, and lastly orange coloured. The floss is likewise thrown into trade, and, like the silk itself, it is dispatched to the ports of Turkey and Europe.

'A tree less valuable, but which notwithstanding is of good produce, covers with its shade several districts, and bears fruits which furnish a particular trade: this is the carob or St. John's bread tree, common also in other countries whose temperature is mild, such as Spain, the south of France, Italy, and particularly the kingdom of Naples. In the ports of Cyprus, vessels load the long, thick pods which this tree produces, and carry them to Syria and Alexandria. In the latter port, I have seen several vessels arrive, whose cargo consisted solely of this species of fruit; whence an idea may be formed of the quantity consumed of it by the inhabitants of Egypt. They eat the succulent pulp which the pods contain, with hard and flat seeds; with them, it likewise supplies the place of sugar and honey, and they employ it in preserving other fruits. This pulp has the taste of that of cassia, and the honied, but insipid and slightly nauseous flavour of manna. The environs of Limassol are planted with a great quantity of carob-trees, and it is more

particularly

particularly in this harbour that the cargoes of their pods are shipped.

'This fruit, known under the name of St. John's bread, and which the Greeks call *keraka*, bad as it is, is not, on that account, less an article of food for the people of Egypt and Barbary, where the tree itself is not unknown. The Arabs call it *karoub* or *karnoub*. In Europe, in places where it is at a low price, the poor likewise live on it. It is also given as food to mules and cattle, which the use of it fattens. Lastly, the wood of the carob-tree being very hard, and consequently proper to be used in different works, we cannot but regret that this serviceable tree, by not thriving in our more northern regions, should not there add to the resources of the arts and of rural economy.

'In the time of the ancient Romans, the carob-tree was already very plentiful in Italy. The fruit, which was called *siliqua*, served as a weight; it required six pods to make a scruple; and as the pound was composed of two hundred and eighty-eight scruples, it also required one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight pods to make its weight *. It may easily be conceived that this manner of weighing, which could serve only for coarse articles of little value, was not likely to be very exact.

'Most of the plains, of which cotton constituted the richness, still preserve some traces of that culture; but it is there no more than a feeble image of what it was formerly. The whole island now affords to commerce but about three thousand bales of cotton; whereas, under the government of the Venetians, the annual quantity of these bales amounted to thirty thousand †. Cyprus cotton is the most esteemed, as the finest of all the Levant; it is sold too at a higher price. It is not so fine in the most southern islands of the Archipelago; that of Smyrna is still inferior. In short, the cotton produced in the environs of Salonica is yet worse than that of Smyrna; so that the more we advance towards the north, the more this article, so valuable in manufactures, loses in quality.

'It would therefore be a useless attempt, and prejudicial even to the interests of the cultivator, to endeavour to introduce into the south of France the culture of the cotton-plant, as has been proposed by some persons, seduced by little trials which attest rather the taste and curiosity of the *amateur*, than the speculations of the husbandman. And should we ever succeed in cultivating on a large scale, and with any success, the cotton-plant in these same countries of France, precarious crops of bad quality could not indemify us for the expences of raising it, nor exempt us from going up the Levant to look for cottons more abundant and of a superior quality, that is, whiter, finer, and more silky.

'* See in the *Mémoires de l'Académie des Belles-Lettres*, vol. xxviii. p. 653, year 1757, the dissertation of M. Dupuis, on the state of the Roman coin, &c. This profound scholar demonstrates that Scaliger is mistaken in taking the *siliqua* of the Romans for the fruit of the cornil-tree.'

'† The bale of cotton commonly weighs three hundred weight.'

'The cotton-tree cultivated in the East is that which is called the *annual* cotton-tree, or cotton *plant*, in order to distinguish it from that of the colonial plantations in the West Indies, which is the *cotton-tree*. On a field, well prepared and turned up, are marked furrows, in which are planted, at certain distances, a few seeds of the cotton-tree, much the same as is practised with respect to maize. It is in the month of April that these sowings are made in Cyprus; as soon as the plants are above ground, those which are too weak are pulled up, and the strongest only are left. They are weeded, and the earth about them is loosened in the course of the summer; their pods ripen towards the month of October, and the silky down which they afford is then separated from the seeds that it surrounds.

'The humidity of the atmosphere, rains of long duration, or too frequent, are equally unfavourable to the cotton-tree. A strong heat is very suitable to it; this promotes the dazzling whiteness of the down, and contributes to the fineness and substance of the silk. The impetuous north winds are a scourge to this plantation, particularly at the period of flowering; the fruits miscarry, and the crop, almost totally lost, disappoints the hope of the cultivator as well as that of the trader.'

The whole of this account being too long for our limits, we must content ourselves with adding that the Venetians, when in possession of this island, made large plantations of sugar-canes; which must have been extremely beneficial in a situation so near to Europe. Since the disastrous epoch, however, at which the Turks became masters of Cyprus, the inhabitants, persecuted on every side, have studiously avoided resuming a kind of culture which would have proved only a pretext for fresh exactions on the part of their oppressors.—The locusts commit great ravages in these climes; on the migrations of which insects, the author's reflections are, if not satisfactory, at least ingenious. At present, the arts as well as agriculture languish in this island; those which are cultivated are but few in number, and, excepting the leather called *Turkey leather*, or *Morocco*, scarcely any deserve attention.

M. Sonnini's observations on Cyprus, in reference to the late attempt on Egypt, are too curious to allow us to pass them by without an extract:

'Should the island of Cyprus (says he) cease to be a prey to the violence and gross incapacity of the government which tears it to pieces; should repairing hands come hither to second the efforts of Nature, which has done so much for this interesting island, both its antient splendour and prosperity would revive, and it would still be once more found to be one of the richest and finest countries in the world.

'Had circumstances allowed, had it been possible to obtain the consent of the Porte, or could it have been foreseen that respect for that restless, suspicious power, led away by the insinuations of the

enemies of France, could have served only to excite its resentment, the conquest of the Island of Cyprus ought, perhaps, to have preceded that of Egypt. The French would there have found abundant means of subsistence, and in the Greeks, by whom it is inhabited, zealous partisans, friends who would have welcomed and assisted them, instead of barbarians whom it was necessary to fight and slaughter; no obstacle would have opposed the landing of the army; the fortified places which are there to be found are dismantled, and so destitute of troops and military stores, that they could not have made any resistance. Numerous harbours, which it would have been easy to put into a respectable state of defence, would have preserved the fleet secure from all attack; ships cruising in the sea of Syria, would have blocked up all its ports; and when the moment should have been thought favourable, these same ships would, in a very little time, have conveyed to the coast of Egypt, an army already accustomed to the heat of the climate, and reinforced by Cypriots *. The debarkation being effected, the fleet would have abandoned the dangerous shores of Alexandria, and regained the roads of Cyprus. An easy, quick, and continual communication, which it would scarcely have been possible for the enemy to intercept, would have been established between the two colonies: the island would have furnished the continent with provisions, other supplies, and particularly wood, in which Egypt is deficient: the small number of useful trees which adorn and cool the plains of this latter country, would not have been sacrificed to the wants of the army, and to military erections; the enemy would not have had the facility of establishing himself at St. Jean d'Acre; descents would have been effected, as it were, on every point of the coast of Syria; the desert which separates it from Egypt would not have cost the lives of many brave men in marches excessively laborious, across arid and burning plains which there is no drop of water to moisten; in short, to the glory of breaking the chains of two nations, oppressed and degraded by ages of slavery, we should have added the happiness of restoring to liberty, and to their former prosperity, a people who are not unworthy of those blessings, and whose gratitude would have been manifested towards their deliverers, by every sort of assistance and every act of devotion.

'The resources which the possession of the Island of Cyprus would have afforded for the conquest of Egypt, would have extended to its preservation; they would have secured and consolidated the acquisition of a country, which, from its position, is the key and emporium of the commerce of three parts of the world, and of which the Roman emperors, who were acquainted with its importance, were so jealous, that they strictly forbad the entrance of it to senators and generals who had not obtained their express permission for that purpose, from an apprehension that the prodigious fecundity and the delights of that beautiful and rich country might lead them to attempt usurpation.

'* The Island of Cyprus is scarcely seventy leagues from Alexandria, and the current carries vessels thither very rapidly.'

'This

'This plan of an expedition, however brilliant, however advantageous it may appear, was not practicable, no doubt, since it was not adopted; it could not indeed escape the penetrating eye and the profound combinations of that man of genius who certainly perceived, in its execution, obstacles sufficiently powerful for rejecting it; in fact, it could not but have been pleasing to him to emancipate from the most tyrannical oppression, and to restore to its ancient state of splendour, a country to which its flourishing situation had occasioned to be given the epithet *happy*, the just application of which is so valuable and so rare; and we must suppose that political considerations of great weight opposed this more extensive developement of the views which directed the expedition to Egypt.

'However, and it is sufficiently manifest, the ideas which I have just traced, the result of my observations on the very places, and of my meditations, can have no merit but in the eyes of philosophy; and it is well kown that philosophy is frequently at variance with political arrangements. Little accustomed to the latter, I am scarcely acquainted with any policy but that of humanity, the study of which has been easy to me; I have found it in my heart.'

After a dangerous passage, owing to the unskilfulness of the mariners, the author arrived in the harbour of Rhodes; where he had an opportunity of learning how sailors contrive to get rid of the troublesome company of rats, by sending them off to their neighbours. 'Our vessel, (says he,) being over-run with these corroding animals, they made considerable havoc by devouring or spoiling the provisions. A Greek bark, loaded with apples, came and cast anchor near us. Our sailors, without making the least noise, ran out a hawser or cablet to her during the night; and then drawing it tight, rendered it serviceable as a bridge to the rats: these, attracted by the smell of the apples, of which they are very fond, passed, without the exception of a single one, into the bark, and there gave the Greeks good reason to curse their neighbour.'

The famous Colossus at Rhodes employs a portion of this attentive traveller's ingenuity and reading; and he tells us, from Pliny, that few men could embrace the thumb of this gigantic statue; each of its fingers was bigger than the generality of our statues; and its several parts, when broken, discovered vast cavities within, some of which were filled with stones of an immense size, in order to add to its weight and give it a greater stability. Being thrown down by an earthquake, no thoughts were entertained of re-erecting the enormous mass; and it lay on the ground nine hundred years, before it was beaten to pieces and carried away.

M. Sonnini pursued his excursions through the numerous islands of the Archipelago; and he varies his narrative by the interspersion of particular events which occurred on his voyages.

Stampali, he tells us, is one of the most fertile of the islands, and the inhabitants participate in the mildness of the climate and the soil; being free from that harsh and rough character so visible in their neighbours, the islanders of Calamo and Lero, which are hard and rugged countries. In these regions, however, so favoured by Nature, and so disgraced by the form of government to which their unhappy and too durable lot has doomed them, the gifts of superior fertility serve only as a scourge, and a rocky barrenness would be a desirable boon: since the natural and legitimate source of riches becomes that of frequent extortions. The more smiling and beautiful is the country, the more it invites the attention and the visits of stupid and cruel exactors, who take from the inhabitants all encouragement to industry, and entirely suppress agriculture; while these senseless despots, who ruin themselves by ruining their territory, avoid the ruder climates, because they are afraid of men who live on mountains, the usual asylum of poverty, courage, and independance.—If the author were allowed to chuse the place of his abode, as an agreeable retreat, he says that he should select Stampali, which he describes in warm and lively colours; provided that it was no longer subjugated to the dominion of the Turks, and that none of those profaners of the most delightful regions of the earth were able to set a foot on its shores.

'But the island of Delos, formerly so opulent, (says M. Sonnini,) and where were celebrated with so much pomp religious ceremonies, in presence of an immense concourse who repaired thither from all points of the East, is now no longer any thing but a desert abandoned to filthy animals and covered with ruins and rubbish. Pirates and robbers are almost the only men who land there; they go thither to share the fruit of their plunder, or concert new schemes of rapine, seated on fragments of altars where incense and perfumes burnt in honour of the god of day.

'The ruins of Delos, the imposing remains of the most beautiful edifices of which ancient Greece was proud, are now no longer what they were at the periods when modern travellers visited and described them. They themselves have their ruins, and they owe their fresh degradation to the profane barbarism of people who came thither to take materials for building their houses, or to wretched Turkish sculptors, who carry off every year precious pieces, in order to make of them those little pillars surmounted by a turban, which the Mahometans erect over the grave of the dead. The name even of Delos is forgotten in the seas where it had acquired so great a celebrity. The Greeks at this day name *Dili*, the two islands of Delos, and our navigators distinguish them by the denomination of *Isdiles*, *Les Isdiles*.'

A great variety of additional interesting passages might be selected from this work, if we could find room for them: but the

the quotations already made will sufficiently convince our readers that much entertainment is to be derived from it. We have still to regret, however, as formerly, that Mr. Sonnini has occasionally entered into details of manners and customs, &c. which are unfit for the eye of modesty: although he has conveyed his meaning in expressions as decorous, perhaps, as could be used *. A number of particulars in natural history are interspersed, with much greater propriety.

We had perused nearly the whole of these travels in a copy of the original †, when the translation came to our hands. From this last we have made our extracts: which will afford ample specimens of the manner in which the translator has performed his duty.

The plates annexed to this volume are neatly engraven; they consist of a general chart of the Levant; the Firman of the Sultan Abdul-Ahhmed, delivered to M. Sonnini; the spider-scorpion, in its natural size; serpents; three fish; and the dress of the women of the island of Argentiera.

Tooke.

ART. XIV. *National Irrigation;* or, the various Methods of Watering Meadows; affording Means to increase the Population, Wealth and Revenue of the Kingdom, by an Agricultural, Commercial, and general Economy in the use of Water. By William Tatham, Author of the Political Economy of Inland Navigation ‡, an Historical Essay on the Culture and Commerce of Tobacco §, &c. 8vo. pp. 412. 8s. Boards. Carpenter. 1801.

FIRE and water, though in themselves elements of tremendous and destructive power, may be so managed and directed as to be rendered extremely subservient to the use and comfort of man. It seems to be a fixed decree of Providence that the improvement of the material world should depend on the combined efforts of human genius and labour, and that philosophy should be invoked for the amelioration of the blessings of Nature. By her aid, that which we should otherwise deplore as an evil is often converted into a benefit; and that which one person rejects as a nuisance is caught and employed by another as a source of inestimable advantage. The element of water affords a continual illustration of the truth of this remark. Much more depends on its right management than is

---

* The translator has suppressed one of the plates; we suppose, from a motive of delicacy. We wish that he had also retrenched those parts of the narrative to which we object.

† In two vols. 8vo. with a 4to. Atlas. Imported by De Boffe, London, price 1l. 7s. sewed.

‡ See M. R. *N. S.* vol. xxxiii. § Ib. vol. xxxv.

commonly imagined. Where it obtains the ascendency, it is injurious to land, and ought to be drained off: but this same water may be often so diffused and apportioned over other grounds as to convert barrenness into fertility; and much of this fluid is no doubt suffered to run to waste, which, by judicious application, might constitute a fountain of riches: so that it is of great importance to the agriculturist to be *water-wise*. If this truth be admitted, some thanks are due to Mr. Tatham; who labours with much apparent energy to instruct the public in this important science, and to exhibit it in all its parts and relations.

Irrigation seems to be with this writer a very favourite topic; and with the enthusiasm of a *sublime* projector, he delineates plans of future improvement, that are truly vast and romantic. Visionary schemes, however, when they are known to result from intense application to a darling theme, should not divert us from availing ourselves of every rational and practicable suggestion; and since "there is, perhaps, (as Dr. James Anderson has observed,) no beneficial practice in agriculture which has been so generally neglected in Great Britain as that of watering land," we are rather inclined to be partial to a writer who strenuously recommends it. We therefore shall not renew our criticisms on the incorrectness of Mr. Tatham's style, which certainly requires a humble apology, though he expressly refuses to make any; nor will we omit to record his ideas, though we fear that but little practical advantage can be derived from some of them.

Mr. T. considers Great Britain, with all her advantages of climate and population, as not being within a thousand years of her zenith in agriculture and manufactures; and in order to stimulate her to improvements of which he is persuaded she is capable, he places before her the antient and modern examples of Irrigation; details the practices of Egypt, Spain, France, and America, as well as the progress which has been made in this useful art in several counties of England and Scotland; explains (with elucidating plates) the methods of raising water by the *Noria*, in Spain, and by the German *lifting wheel* in America; and brings together, in one view, from the agricultural Reports and other publications the several modes of applying water in irrigating meadows, and in creating a soil by what is termed *warping*. He observes, in his introduction, that

'The subject of warping, though somewhat new and local, will be found worthy observation; and I flatter myself that this little book will prove the means of introducing it into many countries where it has never been heard of, and of stimulating the practice of flooding

flooding on such rivers as the Missisippi, where the richest particles of the soil have too long been permitted to waste with the unheeded decrease of inundations, naturally favourable to agriculture.

'The irrigations of the Nile, of Spain, and of France, afford many examples which deserve the notice of the nation and the practical farmer; while the English Counties, on the other hand, remunerate lessons to those who have taught them. None of them are without some peculiar point of instruction; Lincolnshire affords examples for low and sunken grounds; Gloucester and Wiltshire, a complete system for level meadows in ordinary; Cheshire, a singular method of procrastinating water on hilly lands; and Devonshire combines the watering of meadows with the means of conveying its produce.

'I have paid but little attention to the head of objections against irrigation, because all which have occurred to me seem to be so futile as to need no extraordinary arguments to surmount them; and the results which are exhibited bear an unanimous testimony in their favour.

'The irrigation of Aberdeenshire has furnished a new discovery of no small importance: it has proved to us that heath may be changed into grass by the mere act of simple irrigation; and it leads to a mode of levelling which deserves the national care.'

Not contented with inviting private individuals to acts of local improvement, Mr. T. addresses himself to the statesman: hoping to fix his attention on a vast plan of *national irrigation*; by which, he flatters himself, the national income, and in course the revenue of the state, may be greatly augmented. He proposes that government should take into their own hands the construction of *one grand national water-work*, for the purpose of elevating a sufficient supply of fresh and salt water from the most convenient waters below, to the most elevated hills, mountains, and peaks, so as to form spacious reservoirs in the coves of these sterile regions; and that a grand communication, by mains, pipes, and canals, should be formed from one hill or eminence to another, through all the dividing ridges which separate the principal waters and rivers of the kingdom. By the execution of this great work, it is proposed regularly to distribute a due proportion of water into every acre in the island; and that the reader may be convinced of the practicability of the scheme, Mr. Tatham has undertaken to calculate 'the power and expence of constructing a national irrigation, and of communicating a regulating main throughout the kingdom of England, to be fed wholly from the lower level of the tide, lakes, and rivers, by means of machinery.'—As this is the prominent feature of the work, and as the proposition has at least, we believe, the merit of *novelty*, we shall extract the whole of this curious section:

'By the engine employed in the Shadwell water-works the water is raised ninety feet; its pump-barrel is twelve inches; and twenty-two strokes, of six feet each, are performed in one minute.

'The cost of this engine is estimated at two thousand pounds; and its consumption of coals at two bushels per hour.

'Now as I have fixed the mean perpendicular height of the proposed national reservoirs at nine hundred feet elevation above the lower level, I will first endeavour to calculate the expence of commanding so much water at pleasure, for the support of a regulating main; and of distributing its influence, from the reservoirs, through every part of the kingdom.

'As the surplusage of one such main, confined merely to the demands of irrigation, when the drought of the season may happen to exhaust the due proportion of humidity, would probably be of sufficient importance in itself; and more particularly as any greater demand for canals, factories, mills, fishponds, cascades, pleasure fountains, &c. will carry with it an increase of income to the water works, from whence they will necessarily draw an accumulated profit sufficient to justify additional pipes: it will suffice that we take this limitation of the subject as an ample basis for every further extent of it.

'It should be held as an invariable rule in the general practice of raising water, or boats, in hydraulic operations, that where the rise or fall can be brought to one single rise or fall of the land which divides the higher and lower levels of a country, the work for doing this should never be divided; for it is plain that every repetition of such a transfer must repeat a great proportion of the machinery or lockage as often as the operation is to be repeated; besides the increase of attendants, and delays of repeating process. In theoretic calculations it is, however, of some importance, for the reasons before assigned, to estimate repeated, perhaps unnecessary operations.

'Hence, as Shadwell engine raises its water ninety feet, at a known expence, I will allow ten such engines to reach nine hundred feet elevation in the proposed national wnter works; and one grand reservoir, besides a set of regulating basins, to equal each twenty five miles of main, throughout the fifteen hundred miles that I have proposed the extension of national mains, from Scotland to Cornwall.

'*Of the Expence.*—According to the foregoing premises it will be perceived, that six hundred steam engines, of the value of one million two hundred thousand pounds, consuming two bushels of coals each per hour, amounting to four thousand eight hundred and sixty-six and two-thirds chaldrons of coals for each ten engines; or two hundred and fifty two thousand chaldrons, per annum, for the whole kingdom, will be demanded; which, at the good average price of forty shillings per chaldron, would be five hundred and four thousand pounds for fuel.

'There will be a demand of eighteen thousand yards of elevating main, to raise the water from the lower level to sixty grand reservoirs, each

each nine hundred feet above that level; this item, say, at two hundred weight of cast iron to each yard of twelve inch pipe, and five-eight metal, (which will easily bear a hundred feet column of water,) amounts, at fourteen shillings per hundred weight, to the sum of twenty five thousand two hundred pounds.

'Wooden pipes, cartage, laying down, extra charges, &c. inclusive, for fifteen hundred miles of regulating main, at twenty shillings per yard, will amount to two million six hundred and forty thousand pounds. Say for sixty grand reservoirs, at two thousand pounds each, one hundred and twenty thousand pounds; and one hundred thousand more for regulating basins, buildings, &c.

'Thus the aggregate cost of construction may be stated as follows:

600 Steam engines, each 2000l.	£.1,200,000
1800 Yards of elevating mains	25,000
1500 Miles of regulating mains	2,640,000
60 Grand reservoirs, each 2000l.	120,000
Regulating basins	100,000
Allow largely for contingencies	915,000
Total cost,	£.5,000,000

'It follows to state the interest for which this sum may be obtained on so eligible a security: and to add the yearly charges which are attached, before the probable ballance of national gain can be ascertained or remunerated: and, as the government are all competent to regulate the rate of interest, I will suppose the sum of ten per cent. per annum to be sufficient inducement. Hence the following will be approximate to

'The annual expence,

Loan of five millions, obtained at ten per cent. interest	£.500,000
Consumption of 250,000 chaldrons of coals, at 40s. per chaldron	504,000
500 Superintendants of different descriptions, averaging 200l. inclusive	100,000
Wear and tear, disappointments, casualties, new works, and contingencies	396,000
Total of annual charges,	£.1,500,000

'This annual expence will, I apprehend, be sufficiently powerful to govern the temperature of the seasons, and to direct elementary blessings into the coffers of the kingdom, if it should be thought proper to execute the work for public account and risque, by means of monies to be loaned on the faith of this great improvement.'

Having satisfied himself respecting the practicability of this plan, the author proceeds at some length to display its advantages;

tages; and in p. 314, 315, he thus recapitulates his thoughts on the subject:

'In computing the expence of raising a supply of water to a perpendicular height of nine hundred feet, and of distributing that water perpetually through a twelve inch main to the extent of fifteen hundred miles of national summit level, it will be remembered that the sum allowed, at a full practicable price, amounts to an annual one million and a half. At the same extreme allowance of rate it may be admitted, that by combining the force of the elevating machinery ten times that quantity of water may be continually distributed in the same manner; more especially as there would be a small degree of expence only attached to the repetition of basin work, regulating locks and reservoirs. If we admit the probability of what it seems reasonable to suppose, that one third of this elevation would, at an average, encompass the powers of distribution, then it follows that ten millions of pounds per annum would extend thirty such regulating mains; which is perhaps equal to all the springs which feed the Thames put together. (qr.) Let an agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial nation contemplate an idea which, however romantic at first sight, is practicable (qr. again) of placing an artificial river, of considerable dimensions, upon the dividing ridges of the country; having its sources fed from the mountain summits; turning mills and machinery by its mechanical powers throughout all the precipices of its descent; filling navigable canals throughout all the numerous roads of interior commerce; dispensing the benefits of pure and wholesome water into every kitchen and dairy in the kingdom; wantoning in all the sportive fountains of innocent pleasure; multiplying the means of supporting man from the distributive increase of the finny race; irrigating the thirsty soils of gardening and agriculture, and increasing the human kind by the multiplication of their comforts and supply. I say, let science contemplate these results, and she would probably find the astonishing addition of one hundred millions income per annum a very moderate allowance!'

To this proposal, are added *hints* for employing the vagrants and disorderly classes of the community in works of national irrigation; viz. by obliging them to turn a vast wheel by the mere act of treading; and a *plan* for elevating to the roofs of houses that supply which is now delivered from the mains to the several habitations in Bedford Square, for their use in household purposes, and for the prevention of fire. The author concludes with remarking that, if his general scheme be adopted, he sees no reason why the watering of turnpike roads, by means of perforated pipes, should not form a part of the public system.

Mr. Tatham is modest enough to inform us that 'he does not expect a prompt execution of his great design;' and we imagine, indeed, that he will never see it executed, except in his dreams. We must be permitted to smile at his six-hundred steam engines,

engines, and the other enormous items of his scheme: but his ideas respecting the economical use of water, and his statements of the benefits resulting from the application of this element in promoting fertility, deserve general attention; and perhaps his system of elevating water to a great height, in order to promote the safety, accommodation, and luxury of the inhabitants of towns and cities, ought not to pass unnoticed.

Mo-y.

ART. XV. *Memoirs of the Reign of George III.* to the Commencement of the Year 1799. By W. Belsham. Vols. V. and VI. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.

THE author of these volumes has frequently come under our notice *, and we have willingly bestowed on him that commendation which we considered as due to the liberality of his sentiments, the integrity of his views, and the general merit of his performances. Though his principles were decidedly those of pure whiggism, yet we observed with pleasure that he was just to the virtues of those who were of a different persuasion; and that he neither concealed nor palliated the failings of those to whose public conduct he was most attached. We represented him as an impartial historian; impartial certainly in the relation of facts, and in the delineation of character, notwithstanding the bias which the influence of particular opinions must necessarily give to his mind. We are sorry that the latter part of this praise cannot be extended to the present volumes, which appear to be written with the most violent spirit of party. The expressions are frequently so coarse and disgusting, that they impress us with the idea that we are reading the invective of an angry disputant, rather than the narrative of a dispassionate memorialist. When we meet with such terms as 'the superlatively detestable administration,' 'the unparalleled meanness and baseness of Mr. Pitt's disposition,' *cum multis aliis*, we resign every expectation of candid or unbiassed statement; and where the writer is so strongly influenced by his passions, the reader can entertain but slight hopes of deriving information or improvement from the work.—We here express ourselves with some severity, because the fault which we reprehend is incompatible with the essential requisites of an historian, and is in the present instance carried to an inexcusable excess. As Mr. Pitt was the person, in whom originated the most important transactions of

---

* See M. R. *N. S.* vols. xiii. p. 143. xvii. p. 121. and xxxiv. p. 179, &c. &c.

the

the period which is here to be illustrated; as by him they were concerted and carried into effect; and as the writer is actuated by so strong an abhorrence of that Minister's character and measures, that it might easily be mistaken for the resentment of an injured individual; the public will naturally be led to imagine that the history, instead of deserving implicit confidence, must be read with the greatest caution.

The plan of these Memoirs, and the manner of their general execution, having been discussed at some length in our seventeenth volume, we shall now satisfy ourselves with a few additional remarks, and one or two quotations.

The French Revolution, and the conduct of the different demagogues who obtained and abused the supreme power of the state for a short period, are too important objects, and had too great an influence on the transactions of this country, to escape the attention of the present historian. Here, though his love of liberty is ardent and undisguised, he still takes care never to be misled by it to palliate the enormities of its pretended votaries. His attachment to that mighty Revolution was at first warm and sincere, because the event promised to confer happiness on, and restore freedom to, millions of our fellow-creatures: but, when the leaders in that country changed their purposes, and pursued the most unjustifiable objects by the most abominable means, the language of the historian is likewise altered, and he reprobates their savage cruelty at home, and their unprecedented tyranny abroad, in terms of glowing eloquence.

We shall now extract the account of the late state trials; because it is a passage which will at one view shew the defects and the excellencies of this writer's composition:

'Under the first impression made by this ridiculous fable, (of Le Maitre's plot to assassinate the king) the special commission of oyer and terminer, issued for the trial of the state prisoners confined in the Tower of London on a charge of high-treason, was opened at the Sessions-House, Clerkenwell, by the president, lord chief-justice Eyre, in an elaborate charge to the grand jury, which, in the course of their proceedings, found a bill of indictment against Thomas Hardy, John Thelwall, John Horne Tooke, and ten other persons,—John [*Thomas*] Holcroft, one of the number, who, by concealment, had escaped the previous tædium of confinement, voluntarily surrendering himself in court upon the occasion; and on the 25th of the same month they were arraigned before the special commission at the Old-Bailey. The members of the jury sworn to try the general issue of this memorable cause were not only very zealous friends of the government, but adherents of the administration, and most of them members of the loyal associations in and near London; but, through the admirable precautions of the law, they were also

men impartial, intelligent, and of characters highly respectable. The indictment was of uncommon length, and contained no less than nine overt-acts of high-treason, all resolvable into the general charge, that these persons did conspire to summon delegates to a national convention with a view to subvert the government of the country and to *levy war* against the king.

'By a long established construction of law, the *attempt* to levy war against the government, or, in other words, any conspiracy against the government, is no less high-treason than the *actual* levying of war, which is declared to be treason by the original statute of Edward III. because it is, by no very harsh interpretation, presumed to involve in it a design against the life of the king, necessarily endangered by such an attempt, and which is also declared to be treason by the express words of that famous statute. The real crime, therefore, divested of the technical phraseology of the law, charged upon these people, was their conspiring to employ means of coertion and force against the government in order to accomplish its absolute subversion, or at least to effect a material change and alteration in it. The attorney-general, sir John Scott, spoke no less than nine hours in confirmation of the accusation, and with the view of proving the overt-acts charged against them in the indictment, which consisted merely in a tedious recapitulation of the whole proceedings of the two associations, which had been long known to the nation at large, and were publicly advertised in the common newspapers. These proceedings, from their palpable want of decorum, temper, and judgment, had excited the extreme disapprobation of all intelligent persons, and of none more than the advocates of liberal and rational reform; but that they amounted to the crime of high-treason was an idea too extravagant to enter into the head of any man but that of an apostate patriot or a court-lawyer.

'Thomas Hardy, shoemaker, the formidable chief of this presended conspiracy, was the first person brought to the bar; and against him was the elaborate oration of the attorney-general primarily levelled: but happily for the prisoner, and eventually for the public, Mr. Erskine, so long the ornament of his profession, who was retained as counsel for Hardy, employed his great talents and brilliant eloquence with the most complete success in his defence, and that of his colleagues and associates, from the charge in question. "The transactions (Mr. Erskine remarked) which constituted the body of the proof were not the peculiar transactions of the prisoner, but of immense bodies of the king's subjects in various parts of the kingdom, assembled without the smallest reserve, and giving to the public, through the channel of the daily prints, a minute and regular journal of their proceedings. Not a syllable had we now heard that we had not been acquainted with for weeks and months before the prosecution was commenced."

'The principal witnesses against the prisoner were two infamous wretches, spies of government, of the names of Taylor and Gosling. These vile instruments of corruption enumerated several instances of rash and inflammatory expressions, not personally affecting the prisoner Hardy, used at different meetings of the popular societies, which

which might, no doubt, come under the vague and general idea of sedition; but of any formed design of subverting the government, or of using any species of force or coertion respecting it, there existed no shadow of evidence. These democratic and over-heated partizans of reform undoubtedly flattered themselves, that, in consequence of the weight which a petition from the national assembly, or convention of delegates, as they affected to style it—and which could be no other than a general committee deputed from the friends of reform in different parts of the kingdom, without the least pretence to exercise legal authority or jurisdiction—would carry with it, the legislature would become convinced of the political expediency and necessity of acceding to their prayer: and certainly the sense of the nation must be, in some mode or other, very forcibly expressed, before the parliament will, or indeed ought, to hazard so great, though probably so beneficial, a change. The legality of such a delegation as that in contemplation had never been questioned; on the contrary, it was justified by recent precedents both in England and Ireland: but to dream of opposing the authority of this conventional committee, without arms, without money, without the support of any persons more eminent than Thomas Hardy, shoemaker, John Thelwall, itinerant lecturer, Thomas Holcroft, comedian, &c. would have been the extremity, not of political criminality merely, but of folly, and even of madness. The grand object at which these associations aimed was unquestionably to effect a reform in parliament upon the visionary, if not pernicious, principles of the duke of Richmond,—universal suffrage and annual election.

'It is true that these associations contained a considerable proportion of concealed republicans, converts to the novel and extravagant doctrines of Paine; and there can be no doubt but that these people hoped, and perhaps, in the height of their enthusiasm, believed, that a radical reform in parliament, upon democratic principles, would eventually lead to the establishment of a democratic government; but this did not amount to treason, or even sedition, or to any offence against the existing laws at all. Certainly, under the most severe control of the most despotic government, men cannot be amenable to punishment for hoping and believing. As it was, however, well known that these associations were infected with the leaven of republicanism, it became government to keep a watchful eye upon their proceedings, to check their licentiousness, and, by a timely interposition, to curb their insolence long before they had reached the limits of high treason; and their rash and seditious conduct, if the grossest disrespect and the most vulgar and virulent abuse of government deserve the name of sedition, laid them sufficiently open to legal animadversion; but to accuse them of the crime of treason was to confound things the most easy to distinguish and the most important to be distinguished, and tended to excite a powerful interest in the breasts of all sober and dispassionate persons, in favour of men the tenor of whose public proceedings they had previously and highly disapproved. Had the ministry succeeded in this infamous prosecution,—which no attorney general, however respectable his private character, or whatever plea he might set up

of professional duty, could engage in without incurring eternal disgrace,—had they once dipped their hands in blood, they would most surely have gone on in the same sanguinary course till the whole land had become an ACELDAMA — a scene of carnage and desolation.

'A miserably feeble attempt was made on the part of the crown lawyers to prove that the associations in question had armed themselves against the government; whereas, on examination, it appeared merely that a few pikes had been procured, to defend themselves, in case of necessity, against the attacks of the mob at Sheffield, and other populous places where they held their meetings. The corresponding Society had applied to Mr. Francis to present their petition to parliament in the course of the preceding year; and that gentleman proved in evidence, that upon this occasion Mr. Hardy, secretary to the association, had voluntarily offered to come forward and produce all the books and papers of the society, to evince that there was nothing seditious in their conduct, and that their object was purely a parliamentary reform. The trial was protracted to the unprecedented and monstrous length of seven days; and, the evidence being closed, the jury, after a short deliberation, brought in their unanimous verdict of NOT GUILTY—a verdict than which none ever pronounced in an English court of justice gave more exquisite satisfaction, or was more extensively important in its consequences. Notwithstanding the numerous errors, obliquities, and corruptions, which pervaded almost every part of the legislative and executive branches of government, it was perceived with transport that the fountain of criminal justice still retained all its original purity. The surrounding populace could not be prevented from attending *citizen* Hardy, whose conduct had been throughout firm and tranquil, and the counsellors Erskine and Gibbs, to their respective houses, amid the loudest acclamations of applause.

'After an interval of eleven days—no doubt days of chagrin and perplexity on the part of the ministry—was brought to the bar of this high court of justice the celebrated John Horne Tooke, formerly, and for many years a priest of the church of England—a man possessed of extraordinary intellectual talents, but of a peculiar kind, and blended with a considerable alloy of eccentricity. Of obscure and nameless origin, he suddenly appeared in the political world as an extravagant and erring spirit burst from its confine. He first distinguished himself as a violent partizan of Mr. Wilkes, at the time of the famous Middlesex contest—being then curate of Brentford, where the election was held. Such was the enthusiastic ardour of his patriotic zeal at this early period of his life, that, to preserve the liberties of his country inviolate, he publicly declared his readiness to dye his black coat red. He possessed no mean degree of learning and knowledge, and his powers of elocution and self-possession were very uncommon. His habitual influence over the wills and passions of those with whom he was connected indicated a mind of great energy. On some occasions he exhibited himself to the judicious part of the public as a sincere and enlightened champion of the liberties of the people, and on others as an artful and aspiring demagogue.

gogue. This singular man had the presumption, at the last general election, to offer himself as a candidate for the city of Westminster—pretending to be offended at the virtual compromise which had taken place between the court and country parties in the persons of lord Hood and Mr. Fox. On the eventual failure of his hopes (although he polled a very great number of votes) he presented a petition to the house of commons against the return, drawn in the most audacious terms of political invective and reproach, but containing also much indisputable and melancholy truth. This petition, being referred, in the usual mode, to a committee, was declared frivolous and vexatious; but by a wise policy, too frequently and fatally departed from in matters of higher moment, no farther notice whatever was taken of it by the house.

'On this trial of Mr. Tooke, it appeared, to the general surprize, that this gentleman, supposed so vehemently democratic, had been a remarkably guarded and temperate advocate of reform—that he very rarely attended the meetings of the societies—and had even incurred their suspicion and dislike on this account. He had frequently declared his attachment to the house of peers as an useful and necessary branch of the constitution; and he had uniformly reprobated the duke of Richmond's plan of universal suffrage. In a conversation with major Cartwright on the subject of reform, Mr. Tooke had made use of the following familiar but expressive illustration:—"You would go to Windsor, but I should choose to stop at Hounslow."—The most extraordinary circumstance attending this trial was the examination of the duke of Richmond and Mr. Pitt, who were subpœna'd as witnesses by Mr. Tooke. The former was interrogated merely as to the authenticity of his famous letter to colonel Sharman, in order to shew that, as to the matter of reform, the corresponding and constitutional societies did not extend their ideas farther than one of his majesty's cabinet-ministers; and the latter to prove that the mode of conducting the business was similar to that adopted by Mr. Pitt and the reformers of 1780. On this occasion *the unparalleled meanness and baseness of Mr. Pitt's disposition* displayed itself in the most conspicuous manner. To a variety of very material questions relative to the Westminster convention in that and the following years he was *speechless*, being seized with a total want of recollection. With great difficulty, however, he at length was brought to recollect a meeting at the Thatched-House Tavern, in May 1782. Mr. Tooke asked him what that meeting was but a convention of delegates from different great towns and counties, sent by committees of those towns and counties of England? He said he did not recollect how that meeting was composed.—Mr. Tooke then asked whether he did not recollect that it had been objected in the house of commons, respecting the petition actually presented, that it came from persons in a delegated capacity? He said he had no recollection of any such thing. Mr. Sheridan, being immediately afterwards examined, gave a perfectly clear and accurate account of the proceedings of that æra. He had met Mr. Tooke in 1780 at a convention, or meeting of delegates, from different parts, who were to consider the best means of procuring a parliamentary

parliamentary reform, and to act for those who deputed them. He was himself a delegate for Westminster. The matter, he said, was notorious. Mr. Sheridan enumerated the places where these meetings were held—mentioning, in particular, Guildhall, the Thatched-House Tavern, and the duke of Richmond's at Privy-Garden. Here Mr. Pitt begged leave to correct his evidence, and confessed that he was present at some meetings in Privy Garden, where there were delegates from different counties;—*i. e.* he confessed that he was himself chargeable with the very same act for which, now he had abandoned the cause of parliamentary reform, he was engaged in a most profligate and murderous attempt to exterminate those by the sword of justice who still adhered to it under all difficulties and discouragements.—The jury retired for a few minutes previous to their returning a verdict of NOT GUILTY. An involuntary burst of acclamation filled the court, which was instantly re-echoed by the populace without, who, as on the former occasion, escorted the counsel to their chambers.

'A feeble attempt was made to prosecute this infamous business by proceeding to the trial of John Thelwall—a man whose general character was to the last degree contemptible, but against whom nothing was proved excepting some intemperate expressions at the famous popular meeting at Chalk-Farm, and in his lecture-room, which were supported only by the testimony of the spies, Lynam and Taylor, whose evidence was afterwards rendered nugatory, or worse, by that of two other witnesses. The jury, without hesitation, brought in a verdict of NOT GUILTY.

'The conduct of the cabinet ministers in this extraordinary business, their mode of investigating the transactions of the associations in question, and of securing the requisite evidence of the several witnesses for the crown in these successive trials—was such as fully to justify the memorable observation of Dr. Swift, who says, "that those diligent enquiries into remote and problematical guilt, with a new power of enforcing them by chains and dungeons to every person whose face a minister thinks fit to dislike, are not only opposite to that maxim which declareth it better that ten guilty men should escape than one innocent suffer, but likewise leave a gate wide open to the whole tribe of informers, the most accursed, prostitute, and abandoned race that God ever permitted to plague mankind."

'Considering the state of parties in the kingdom at this time, the acquittal of these persons excited a much more general sensation of satisfaction than might previously have been expected. The truth is, that the selfish as well as the generous feelings were interested on this occasion; and, in the course of his pleadings, Mr. Erskine very happily quoted a remark of the celebrated Dr. Johnson on the acquittal of Lord George Gordon:—"I am glad he was not convicted of this constructive treason; for, though I hate him, I love my country, and I love myself." Of all the wicked inventions of lawyers, the doctrine of constructive treason, by which unwary people may be convicted of a capital offence while unconscious of the violation of any law, is perhaps the worst. But Mr. Erskine, on

this momentous occasion, spoke like a man inspired, and at once redeemed the honor of his profession, and established the safety of his country. Had the men arraigned upon such an accusation *, supported by such evidence, been capitally convicted, and the sentence been carried into execution, it would most unquestionably have been an horrible murder, perpetrated in the forms and under the pretext of law. But the very supposition is a libel upon the glorious institution of JURIES.'

In no part of his work does Mr. Belsham speak with more animation, than in the opposition which he expresses to the principles of the sedition and treason bills; and no where does his warmth appear more justifiable. He denies the necessity of these measures, and maintains their utter incompatibility with the true and immemorial rights of the people. This portion of the history will be read with sincere pleasure by every true constitutionalist; – as will the pages in which the writer recounts the splendid naval victories obtained in the course of this war by the noble Admirals, Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan, Nelson, &c.—The detail of the circumstances attending the stoppage of payment in specie at the Bank is also curious and interesting; though it is deformed by a mixture of coarse invective against the Prime Minister, whose misconduct is stated to have produced the necessity for so alarming a measure.

We shall now take leave of these volumes; expressing the hope that Mr. Belsham, in the continuation of his history, will preserve those recommendations to public favour which his productions have formerly established, and that he will moderate the expressions of his censure on individuals, however pernicious their measures may be in his estimation.

' * The writer of this History has been at much pains to ascertain the intrinsic validity of the charge against these societies; not whether there was *legal evidence* of their intention when assembled in convention—such as had already been actually and harmlessly held both in Ireland and England—to usurp the powers of government; for it is clear as the noon day sun there was not; but whether any such secret design really existed in *any* individuals, *not proveable* by the established rules of evidence. But even of this he has not been able to discover the slightest ground of suspicion or shadow of presumption: on the contrary, all circumstances concur to the forming of an opposite conclusion; though at a subsequent period, inflamed by the spirit of revenge, some of the members of these associations may, with too much probability, be supposed to have engaged in machinations highly dangerous and criminal.'

S.R.

ART.

ART. XVI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1801. Part I.

[*Article concluded from the Rev. for November.*]

MEDICAL *and* ANATOMICAL PAPERS, *&c.*

THE Croonian Lecture. On the Irritability of Nerves. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.—In the operation of dividing the Median nerve, which supplies the thumb and forefinger, for the purpose of relieving an uncommon nervous affection, Mr. Home observed that the divided extremities of the nerve retracted themselves, though they had been completely detached from the surrounding cellular membrane. To ascertain the fact more completely, experiments were made, by dividing the phrenic nerves of horses (immediately after they were slaughtered,) in the chest: in which instances, the retraction of the nerve was clearly distinguished. A similar experiment on the nerves in the extremities of rabbits was equally successful.—Mr. Home's conclusions from these facts are

'1. That the nerves of an animal in health are capable of retracting themselves when divided; and that this effect is entirely independent of the parts by which they are surrounded.

'2. That this contraction takes place in the nervous fibres themselves; and is independent of the brain, from which they originate, and of the muscles and other parts in which they terminate.

'3. That the contracted nerve exhibits to the eye, an appearance of contraction in its fibres, not to be seen when it is in a relaxed state.'

The action of the electric fluid was not found to affect the retractive power of the nerves.

When a nerve is divided, with a curative intention, Mr. Home is of opinion that, if the wound of the integuments does not heal by the first intention,—inflammation, supervening on the divided extremity of the nerve, may produce exactly the same symptoms as the original disease.

Fer.

The Bakerian Lecture. On the Mechanism of the Eye. By Thomas Young, M. D.—This paper is intended as a supplement to the author's *Observations on Vision*, which were read to the Society in the year 1793, and of which we gave an account in M. R. vol. xiv. N. S. p. 71. Many important additions to the former memoir are here made; with the correction of some errors into which Dr. Young acknowleges that he had fallen. Though he cannot satisfy all our inquiries respecting the eye, he has thrown some *light* on this most wonderful organ of vision; and his readers must applaud his philosophical perseverance. The subject is discussed with much minuteness,

and at such a length that we can do little more than exhibit the objects and results of the investigation.

In consequence of perusing Dr. Porterfield's paper on the internal motions of the eye, (Edinb. Med. Essays, vol. iv. p. 124.) Dr. Young was induced to resume this discussion; and he has in consequence made such observations as appear to him decisive in favour of his former conclusion, as far as that opinion attributed to the lens a power of changing its figure. He commences his present inquiry into *the Mechanism of the Eye* with a general consideration of the sense of vision; enumerating some dioptrical propositions subservient to his purpose, and describing an instrument for readily ascertaining the focal distance of the eye. Hence he passes to investigate the dimensions and refractive powers of this organ in its quiescent state; with the form and magnitude of the picture which is delineated on the retina. Next, he inquires into the extent of the changes which the eye admits; and what degree of alteration in its proportions will be necessary for these changes, on the various suppositions which are principally deserving of comparison. He then relates a variety of experiments to decide the truth of these hypotheses; and he concludes with some anatomical illustrations of the capacity of this organ in various classes of animals, for the functions attributed to them.—A series of plates accompanies the lecture; the want of which renders it impossible for us to particularize some of the most important experiments: but the principal deductions are thus recapitulated by the Doctor himself:

'First, the determination of the refractive power of a variable medium, and its application to the constitution of the crystalline lens. Secondly, the construction of an instrument for ascertaining, upon inspection, the exact focal distance of every eye, and the remedy for its imperfections. Thirdly, to shew the accurate adjustment of every part of the eye, for seeing with distinctness the greatest possible extent of objects at the same instant. Fourthly, to measure the collected dispersion of coloured rays in the eye. Fifthly, by immerging the eye in water, to demonstrate that its accommodation does not depend on any change in the curvature of the cornea. Sixthly, by confining the eye at the extremities of its axis, to prove that no material alteration of its length can take place. Seventhly, to examine what inference can be drawn from the experiments hitherto made on persons deprived of the lens [as is the case in the operation for extracting cataracts, called *couching*]; to pursue the inquiry, on the principles suggested by Dr. Porterfield, and to confirm his opinion of the utter inability of such persons to change the refractive state of the organ. Eightly, to deduce, from the aberration of the lateral rays, a decisive argument in favour of a change in the figure of the crystalline; to ascertain from the quantity of this aberration, the form into which the lens appears to be

thrown in my own eye, and the mode by which the change must be produced in that of every other person.'

Dr. Young is aware of the extreme delicacy and precaution requisite in conducting experiments on the eye, and in drawing inferences from them: but he flatters himself that he shall not be deemed too precipitate in denominating this series of experiments *satisfactorily demonstrative.*

Mo-y.

Account of a Monstrous Lamb. In a Letter from Mr. Anthony Carlisle, *to the Right Hon. Sir* Joseph Banks, *Bart.*, &c.—In this animal, which was born at the full period, the brain and its nerves were wanting. It is unnecessary to state the particular appearances on dissection, because similar facts have been repeatedly observed in the human fœtus.

An Anatomical Description of a Male Rhinoceros. By Mr. H. Leigh Thomas, *Surgeon.*—The principal peculiarities, observed in this dissection, consisted in the papillary shape of the processes formed by the internal coat of the intestines; and in four processes, arising from the internal and posterior portion of the sclerotic coat of the eye, and terminating in the choroid coat, at the broadest diameter of the eye. Mr. Thomas supposes that they are intended to accommodate the eye of this animal to near objects.

Account of an Elephant's Tusk, in which the Iron Head of a Spear was found embedded. By Mr. Charles Combe, of Exeter College, Oxford.—This short paper merely announces the fact mentioned in the title; nothing being known respecting the history of the animal to which the tusk belonged.

Fer.

Mathematical Papers.

On the necessary Truth of certain Conclusions obtained by Means of imaginary Quantities. By Robert Woodhouse, A. M. Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge.—Impossible quantities employed in calculation lead to true results; that is, to the same results which may be obtained from the same principles, by a different process, acknowleged to be rigorous, and instituted for the same end: but, if the results be true in fact, they must necessarily be true; or there must be a logical process, according to which, operations with any symbols whatever that produce right conclusions are regulated. If even a compensation of errors happens, such compensation, made manifest and proved admissible, serves in part to establish the justness of the deductive process. Such is briefly the argument used by the author of the present paper, to shew that the explanation and establishment of the logical process with imaginary symbols

bols is not necessarily and inherently impracticable, but contrariwise. In the 68th vol. of the transactions, Mr. Playfair attempted to shew that operations with imaginary quantities are true, by virtue of a certain analogy existing berween the circle and hyperbola: this principle of analogy, and the mode of explanation founded on it, are examined by Mr. Woodhouse; who inquires,

'What is it that determines the nature of this analogy? or how can its several coincidences, interruptions, and limitations be ascertained, except by separate and direct investigations of the properties of the circle and hyperbola? If the analogy between the two curves depends on investigation and is limited thereby, then all operations with imaginary expressions are perfectly nugatory: since we are not warranted to adopt a single conclusion obtained by their aid, except such conclusion be verified by a distinct and rigorous demonstration.

'The author of the principle of analogy allows it to be imperfect; and I perceive no sure method of ascertaining the restrictions to which it is subject, except by the forms that result from actual investigation.'

This argument seems to be conclusive against the principle of analogy; since analogy, or the similarity of the properties of two figures not existing independently of investigation, but found out by it, cannot regulate it:—to obtain a result by a process, and then to use the result in order to explain the process, is arguing, as the French express it, in a vicious circle.

After this discussion of the principle advanced by Mr. Playfair, the author gives his own mode of explanation. He begins by observing that a general demonstration, if true, must be so in every particular case that arises, on giving specific values to the symbols which enter into the calculation:—the form, for instance, of the binomial $(a+b)^x$, is true when for x we put any number, whole or fractional, positive or negative: but under the general form $(a+b)^x$, the case $(a+b)^{x\sqrt{-1}}$ is not included, since $x\sqrt{-1}$ represents no number, and is not capable of arithmetical computation; and it is impossible to prove, without previous convention or arbitrary assumption, that $(a+b)^{x\sqrt{-1}} = a^{x\sqrt{-1}} + x\sqrt{-1}\,a^{x\sqrt{-1}}b$, &c.

There is the same impossibility of proving that $e^{x\sqrt{-1}} = 1 + x\sqrt{-1} - \frac{x^2}{1.2}$, &c.: how then, it will be asked, can $e^{x\sqrt{-1}}$ be put $= 1 + x\sqrt{-1} - \frac{x^2}{1.2}$, &c. or employed to any good purpose in

in demonstration? Mr. W. says that $e^{x\sqrt{-1}}$ is the abridged symbol for the above series not proved equal, but made to represent it, which it does unambiguously; since, in the form $e^{x}=1+x+$, &c. proved to be true, we have only to substitute $x\sqrt{-1}$ for x, $-x^2$ for x^2, &c.

Hence, according to the present author, from forms established for the functions of real quantities, we obtain a notation, or mode of representation, for other quantities; and such a notation cannot lead us into error, since the abridged symbol stands for only one determinate series.—To prove that such a notation is commodious is the next object:

Now, if $e^{x\sqrt{-1}}$ be the symbol for $1+x\sqrt{-1}-\frac{x^2}{1.2}$, &c.

and $e^{-x\sqrt{-1}}$ — — — for $1-x\sqrt{-1}-\frac{x^2}{1.2}$, &c.

then $\frac{e^{x\sqrt{-1}}+e^{-x\sqrt{-1}}}{2}$ represents $1-\frac{x^2}{1.2}+$ &c., or is the symbol for cos. x; and in like manner unambiguous symbols may be obtained for other lines drawn in a circle.—What remains to be explained is the deductive process in which these symbols enter; and this, perhaps, we shall best accomplish by taking the author's instance, and his reasoning on it.

The sin. x cos. $y=\frac{1}{2}$ sin. $(x+y)+\frac{1}{2}$ sin. $(x-y)$; and the demonstration of this form (as of all others) consists in a series of identical propositions, or symbols representing those propositions, by which the first proposition sin. x. cos. x., or its symbol, is connected with the last proposition $\frac{1}{2}$ sin. $(x+y)+\frac{1}{2}$ sin. $(x-y)$, or its symbol.

Now the mode of representing sin. $x\times$cos. y, by means of imaginary characters is $\left(\frac{e^{x\sqrt{-1}}-e^{-x\sqrt{-1}}}{2\sqrt{-1}}\right)\times\left(\frac{e^{y\sqrt{-1}}+e^{-y\sqrt{-1}}}{2}\right)$

and of, $\frac{1}{2}$ sin. $(x+y)+\frac{1}{2}$ sin. $(x-y)$.

is $\frac{1}{2}\left\{\frac{e^{(x+y)\sqrt{-1}}-e^{-(x+y)\sqrt{-1}}}{2\sqrt{-1}}\right\}+\frac{1}{2}\left\{\frac{e^{(x-y)\sqrt{-1}}-e^{-(x-y)\sqrt{-1}}}{2\sqrt{-1}}\right\}$

These two expressions may be shewn to be equivalent, by a series of transformations, each proved lawful and equivalent to its preceding one, by executing the operations directed to be performed by the signs $\times$, $+$, &c., and by referring to the series which $e^{x\sqrt{-1}}$, $e^{y\sqrt{-1}}$, &c. are made to represent.

If the expressions be manifested to be identical, the proposition is proved.

Thus, demonstration with these imaginary symbols is shewn to be true, without the aid of a new metaphysique, or far fetched principle; and to be conducted in a manner similar to that of demonstration, in which the signs of real quantities are employed.—The remaining part of the paper is occupied in assigning the sums of such series as $(\sin. x)^n + (\sin. 2x)^n +$, &c.; in explaining the meaning of certain expressions in which imaginary symbols enter; and in discussing the controversy between Leibnitz and others, concerning the logarithms of negative quantities. After having pointed out the erroneous notions which Euler, and even D'Alembert, admitted, Mr. W. observes;

'In this controversy, the predominancy of the "*Esprit Géometrique*" is remarkable; if in an enquiry purely mathematical, any ambiguity or paradox presents itself, the most simple and natural method is, to recur to the original notions on which calculation has been founded. Instead of pursuing this method, the controvertists sought to derive illustration from obscure doctrines, and to discover the latent truth amidst the complex forms and involutions of analysis.'

Such is the brief account of the speculations contained in this paper. Those who desire fuller matter, illustration, and a more expanded argumentation, must consult the memoir itself.

Demonstration of a Theorem, by which such Portions of the Solidity of a Sphere are assigned as admit an Algebraic Expression. By Robert Woodhouse, A. M. Fellow of Caius College.—Viviani, and after him many other mathematicians, shewed that, if a sphere be pierced perpendicularly to the plane of one of its great circles by two cylinders, of which the diameters are equal to the radii of the sphere, the portion of the spherical surface taken away is such that what remains is quadrable, and equal to four times the square of the radius. By the same method of piercing the sphere, such part of the solidity is taken away that what remains is *cubable*, and equal to two ninths of the cube of the sphere's diameter. To demonstrate this curious property is the object of the present paper, and the demonstration is effected by the method of triple integrals; which is too much compressed to admit an analysis, yet too long and too abstruse to be inserted in our pages.

The volume concludes with the usual Meteorological Journal. The second Part for 1801 is published, and we shall report its contents as soon as other engagements will permit.

from 85. R.W.

Art.

See PP. 83. & 85.

ART. XVII. *Catalogus Bibliothecæ Historico-Naturalis* Josephi Banks, *Regi a conciliis intimis, Baroneti, Balnei Equitis, Regiæ Societatis Præsidis, cæt. Auctore* Jona Dryander, *A. M. Regiæ Societatis Bibliothecario.* 8vo. 5 Vols. Elmsley. 1800.

THE name of Sir Joseph Banks stands pre-eminent among the modern patrons of science, and must descend to posterity with distinguished honour. In an age in which literature and philosophy derive little protection from the great, and in which the revenues of the titled and opulent are squandered in finery, dissipation, and childish extravagance, Sir Joseph employs his noble income with signal reputation to himself and with great benefit to society, by promoting science and encouraging scientific men. At his house, Philosophy holds her court and has her levée. To his honour be it said, that he lives as the President of the Royal Society ought to live; and it is to be wished that the presidents of other literary bodies would copy his example. His library is an evidence of his scientific ardor and perseverance; and the publication of this catalogue is a proof that he wishes it to be considered in some respects as a public collection, which the learned and the studious in the several branches of Natural Philosophy are always at liberty, on proper application, to consult.

Mr. Dryander, the Librarian of the Royal Society, has evinced great judgment in arranging, in classing, and in cataloguizing so large a collection; his labour must have been great: but whatever it may have been, we regret that he did not take the additional trouble of writing some explanatory preface, instead of leaving the work entirely to speak for itself. Receiving it as it is presented to us, we can only take a brief notice of the contents of each volume. The First, containing 309 pages, includes *General Writers*, and is divided into two parts,—1. Books which treat of other sciences besides Natural History,—and, 2. The General Writers of Natural History. The Second volume, occupying 578 pages, is appropriated to *Zoologists*, and is divided into four parts; 1. The writers on Zoology in general, or on any particular branch of it; 2. Those on *Physical*; 3. Those on *Medical*; and, 4. Those on *Oeconomical* Zoology. Volume III., containing 656 pages, is devoted to *Botanists*, and is subdivided like the preceeding. The Fourth volume, containing 390 pages, exhibits the *Mineralogists*, with a similar subdivision. Vol. v. and last, containing 531 pages, is occupied by a supplement, and a general *index auctorum*.

That our readers may have some idea of the subdivisions of this work, and of the detailed arrangement of this part of Sir Joseph

Joseph Banks's noble library, we shall transcribe the order in which Mr. Dryander has classed the books under the head of *General Writers on Natural History*, in Part 2. of Vol. 1. *viz.* Economists; Historians; works on the lives and writings of Natural Historians; *Bibliotheca Lexica*; the methods of studying Natural History; Elements of Natural History; Systems of Nature; Affinities, their history, and the plates which illustrate them; Description of Natural Objects, with miscellaneous observations; Collections; Microscopical Observations; *Musea*, specifying those of Great Britain, Holland, France, Italy, &c.; Topographists; Writers on the Sea and on Lakes; Philosophical Poets; Physico Theologians; Teologians, (*i. e.* writers on final causes); Biblical Philosophers; Critics on the Works of Antient Naturalists; *Thaumatographi*, or retailers of wonders; *Palingenesia*, or the writers (not many) who treat on those changes in nature which may be considered as kinds of resuscitation; Miscellaneous Physiologists; Collections on the *Materia Medica*, including writers on medicine, diet, poisons, and antidotes;—and the class concludes with the authors on rural economy, and on the *Ars Tinctoria*, or art of dying.

The detail of this arrangement may serve to shew the wide extent of Sir Joseph's collection; and it may also assist gentlemen in making a scientific catalogue of their libraries.

Mo-y.

Art. XVIII. *Sermons*, by the Reverend Sidney Smith, A. M. late Fellow of New College, Oxford. Vol. II. 12mo. pp. 298. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman.

Of the first volume of these sermons, an account has already been given *. A second edition of it is now published, with considerable augmentations: but our present attention must be directed to Vol. II. It contains eight discourses; and they are introduced by a preface, in which the sprightly and sensible author expresses his expectation of that candour from the reader which is due to sermons delivered to a *mixed audience*, and then adverts to the general neglect of public worship observeable among us. Passing by other *grave* and *important* causes, he adds, 'I still am afraid it must, in some little degree, be attributed to our form of worship and to the clergy themselves:' of the latter, however, he speaks in a handsome manner, but he remarks that the 'English clergy, when they have discharged the formal and exacted duties of religion, are not very forward, by gratuitous inspection and remonstrance,

---

* See M. Rev. vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 441.

to keep alive and diffuse a due sense of religion in their parishioners.'

The low state of pulpit eloquence is another object of this reverend critic's discussion; and some causes are assigned for it, such as 'a bad choice of subjects, a bad taste in the language of sermons, a constant repetition of the same scriptural phrases, used, perhaps, with great judgment two hundred years ago, but now become so trite that they may, without any great detriment, be exchanged for others; and farther, the very ungraceful manner in which they are delivered.' On this last topic, Mr. Smith expatiates with a degree of sarcasm. We may observe, however, that serious composure and gravity are most becoming in the pulpit, and that much gesticulation awakens suspicion. A man ought always to manifest that he is himself in earnest, not in the pursuit of fame or interest, but in the cause of virtue, truth, and piety; and happy is he who, leaving *himself* out of the question, really and ardently seeks to be useful to others!—Excellent is the admonition of the heathen poet,

> "*—Si vis me flere, dolendum est*
> *Primum ipsi tibi.*"

Whether an increase of pomp and ceremony, good fires in churches, or improved music, might advance our piety and virtue, is a question which we shall not at present discuss nor decide; but we must not omit one of Mr. Smith's remarks on this subject;—'The same blighting wind (says he) chills piety, which is fatal to vegetative life: yet our power of encountering weather varies with the object of our hardihood; we are very Scythians, when pleasure is concerned, and Sybarites, when the bell summons us to church.' In another part, when speaking of *the choice of subjects*, it is remarked—'The clergy are allowed about twenty-six hours every year for the (public) instruction of their fellow-creatures; and I cannot help thinking this short time had better be employed on *practical subjects*, explaining and enforcing that conduct which Christianity requires, and which mere worldly happiness commonly coincides to recommend. These are the topics nearest the heart, which make us more fit for this and a better world, and do all the good that sermons will ever do.'

To come now to the discourses themselves:—the subjects of them are as follow: Effects which Christianity ought to produce on Manners. Pride of Birth. Union of Innocence and Wisdom. Farewell-Sermon to a Country Parish. Vanity. Treatment of Servants. Men of the World. For the *Swiss*. The reader will probably have formed some judgment concerning

ing these sermons from what he will have remarked above, and from the account which has been given of the former volume. Any favourable opinion, which we may have expressed on that occasion, attaches equally to the present. If the author be lively and pleasant, he is also sensible and instructive: if he deviates somewhat from the common track, he does it in a manner which is adapted to draw and to fix the attention; and if, in some instances, he should be thought not fully to have discussed the subject, sufficient is said to imply the rest and enforce the whole. The sermon inscribed *Vanity* deserts the aphorism or sententious reflection of the text, but it affords a striking portrait of the *vain man.*—Some objections might, perhaps, be made to the publication: but its merits, on the whole, are very predominant; and we may justly recommend it to notice, as likely to prove really beneficial to those who will allow it a careful perusal. **Hi.**

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For JANUARY, 1802.

PHILOSOPHY.

Art. 19. *Choix d'Amusemens Physiques et Mathematiques*, &c.; *i. e.* A Selection of Philosophical and Mathematical Amusements, affording an agreeable Employment for the Minds of Young Persons. By M. L. Despiau, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 230. each. Dulau and Co. London.

MUCH rational and innocent entertainment is afforded in this selection; the substance of which, if not rare nor profound, is neither mean nor trivial; and it is well adapted (as the title-page expresses) to exercise the minds of youth, and to send them forth in quest of knowlege by exciting their curiosity.

The first volume is introduced by an argument on the necessity and use of mental recreation. We should hope that this discussion might have been spared, since it defends that which no one ought to attack, and recommends pursuits which all the world should regard as rational and amusing.—After the Introduction, we find questions in Arithmetic, Progressions arithmetical and geometrical, Properties of Numbers, Combinations, Problems on Games of Chance, in Algebra, &c. With these are mixed a great variety of what we call Tricks, viz. of divining a person's thoughts, of combining numbers, &c.

The second volume contains an explanation of a number of phænomena; with instructions for producing those curious effects which Philosophy, in its sportive humour and hour of indolence, has invented to amuse, or to astonish the vulgar.

This little work appears to us well adapted to answer its purpose of rational amusement and pleasing instruction: but we wish that the author had not stained it with the cruel artifice of destroying ravens, mentioned in p. 158. Vol. II.

Art. **R.W.**

Art. 20. *Select Amusements in Philosophy and Mathematics*; proper for agreeably exercising the Minds of Youth. Translated from the French of M. L. Despiau. With several Corrections and Additions, particularly a large Table of the Chances or Odds at Play. The whole recommended as an useful Book for Schools. By Dr. Hutton, Professor of Mathematics at Woolwich. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1801.

We know not by whom this translation has been performed, but, though not very skilfully executed, it will be acceptable to the English public. From the mode of printing Dr. Hutton's name in the title-page, a hasty reader might be led to conclude that this Gentleman was the translator: we apprehend, however, that this is not the fact: though the work itself is very strongly recommended by the Doctor. **R.W.**

Art. 21. *The System of the World.* By M. Lambert. Translated from the French by James Jacque, Esq. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

This work is introduced by an 'encomium' on its author, composed (we apprehend) by the Secretary of the Berlin Academy. The Eulogy is here very incorrectly translated, but appears to have been originally written with much spirit and good sense; indeed, the Secretary had a favourable subject for the exertion of his powers. M. Lambert was born and educated in poverty, but rose superior to adverse circumstances; and he obtained favour and distinction not by caressing the rich and powerful, but by the impressive appeals which the display of his talents made to the judgment of the wise and discerning. His strong sense was contrasted with oddities and singularities: when elevated above his humble condition, he still displayed the same simplicity of manners, was unrestrained, positive, and confident: he flattered no one, and never concealed the high opinion which he had of his own abilities and acquirements:—for instance:

'The King called him to Potzdam in the month of March. It was a moment not a little critical in the fortunes of Mr. Lambert; and, at first, his stars seemed to decide against him. The peremptory tone of his answers; the confidence with which he replied without hesitation to the question—*Que savez vous* *?—*Tout, Sire*,—and then *Comment l'avez vouz appris?—De moiméme.*†—Striking ears, but little accustomed to such sounds, might naturally enough excite a suspicion, that the repletion of his brain had discomposed some of its main springs. Here the interview ended, but without effect; nor did it seem to leave the smallest chance in his favour; but the great Frederick, let into the singularity of the man, who, as one of our worthy colleagues daily honoured with his Majesty's conversation, assured him, bore a strong resemblance to the character of La Fontaine, would not deprive his Academy of a member from whom so much was to be expected. He was therefore admitted with a pension, and pronounced his inaugural oration in the month of January, 1765. Since that period, his Majesty honoured him with

'* What do you know?—Every thing.'

'† By what means have you learnt it?—By myself.'

frequent

frequent and distinguished marks of his esteem; placed him in the financial commission of the Academy, and the architectural department, with the the title of Superior Counsellor, at the same time making a considerable addition to his appointment- During these twelve years, which have passed away like a dream, Mr. Lambert, in his proper element, devoted his incessant labours to the improvement of science and the public good. He published some excellent performances, and furnished tracts without number, which have been inserted in the *Memoires* of the Academy, the Astronomical Tables of Berlin, and other collections. All his writings are highly expressive of a universal and original genius.'

The following passage in the Eloge deserves notice:—the concluding sentiment belongs (we think) originally to Voltaire, and was applied by him to Newton, on the occasion of his commentaries on Daniel:

'Mr. Lambert was a stranger to the three kingdoms of nature *: he had never given his attention to individuals, nor to facts in that arrangement. All his points of view centered in the starry vault, in a straight line before him, and in the chamber of his brain, where he was continually immured, even when you thought you were with him, and fixed, or at least divided his attention. No divergency in him either to the right or to the left, always in the region of abstractions, *objects in the order, of what are called concretes scarcity grazed his sphere.*

'In fine, it must be admitted that he was almost destitute of taste; nor was this owing to his neglect of those smiling fields where this fair flower shoots and flourishes; we have already seen that he ventured to climb Parnassus; but in spite of his partiality for the muses, he was ever ready to ask as to subjects of taste, *What does it prove?* I should not have chosen to speak so plainly on this topic in his life-time; I was no stranger to his pretensions to wit: I got a sight of a *memoire* in form of a dialogue, which he had been at pains to besprinkle with attic salt; but in which the academician in disguise had too strong a resemblance to a player out of his part. Great men would drive their inferiors to despair, if they paid no tribute to humanity.'

Respecting the present work of M. Lambert, we cannot say that we have been much pleased with it. Undoubtedly it contains many excellent observations, and much sound philosophy: but the speculations concerning planets, comets, their inhabitants, atmospheres, &c. appear to us to be puerile and uninteresting. Of the translator we know nothing: but from his language we suspect that he is a foreigner. Many of his sentences are aukward, some unintelligible, and several words are erroneously spelt. We continually meet with *elipse*, for ellipse; *lense*, for lens; *ecliptic curve*, for elliptic curve; *niece* for nice; *apoques*, for epochs; *Mar's*, for the abbreviated genitive case of Mars, &c. &c.

'* He was however tolerably conversant in chemistry; he made various experiments on salts; which made the subject of different papers read in the Academy.'

R.W.

Art.

Art. 22. *A Week's Conversation on the Plurality of Worlds.* By Mons. De Fontenelle. The 7th Edition, with considerable Improvements. Translated by Mrs. A. Behn, Mr. J. Glanvil, John Hughes, Esq. and Wm. Gardner, Esq. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Jones. 1801.

Fontenelle's *Entretiens sur la Pluralité des Mondes* are written with such perspicuity and admirable vivacity, that they might be read with delight, even if the doctrines which they taught were totally false. A hundred philosophers could now, indeed, produce a deeper and more learned book: but very few could compose a work of similar merit. To the present impression, the editor has added what he calls Mr. Addison's *Defence* of the Newtonian Philosophy: a very strange defence, in which the name of Newton is only once mentioned, and then in a parenthesis; in which his peculiar doctrines and discoveries are not at all recorded; and in which the chief praise is that of Descartes, whose system of physics was overthrown by Newton.

R.W.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *A Memoir on the Importance and Practicability of translating and printing the Holy Scriptures in the Chinese Language*, and of circulating them in that vast Empire. Including an Account of the Introduction, Progress, and present State of the Catholic Missions in that Country. By William Moseley The 2d Edition, improved and enlarged. 8vo. 1s. Chapman.

Every Christian, who is impressed with a conviction of the importance of the Gospel, must ardently wish to hasten the time when *all the kingdoms of the world shall become the kingdoms of Christ.* Zeal is commendable in such a cause; and, the contemplative mind will suggest to itself various means by which this glorious work may be promoted and ultimately accomplished: but it is not always considered that the march of truth is slow, and that the operations of Providence rarely comport with our well-meant plans of assistance. How far this may be the case in the scheme detailed in this memoir, time must discover. To diffuse the knowlege of the Christian Scriptures over an empire containing a population (according to Sir George Staunton's account) of 333,000,000, is a most formidable undertaking, and we heartily wish it success: but so many difficulties oppose themselves, that we cannot contemplate it with any sanguine expectations. We agree with Mr. Moseley that 'the more refined a heathen nation is, the greater is the probability of its conversion': but it does not appear that the Chinese are sufficiently cordial towards Europeans, to allow them even to travel through their country. The accounts of conversions made by Catholic Missionaries are very questionable. Admitting, however, their statement to be true, that there are 200,000 Christians in China, a Protestant Mission and a translation of the Scriptures into the Chinese language may be adviseable: yet a large edition of the proposed Chinese Version, sent out as a mere article of trade, to be distributed by our Merchants and Factors, is not likely to be attended with any benefit. Mr. Moseley is of a different opinion; and he contends that, 'if the

time

time be not yet come to send Missionaries, it is always time to circulate the word of God.' Granting, what he says is demonstrated, that 'in no Heathen nation are Missionaries more likely to meet with more civilities, or a Mission, well-directed, with better success, than in China,' it seems most prudent to begin with a Mission, and to be regulated in the subsequent measures by its report: but Mr. M. would reverse this order; and he farther argues that 'the sacred seed, being widely scattered in China, would prepare the way for Missionaries to go over, at some future time, with the prospect of great success.' The present Emperor *Ka-King* is declared 'to have given full liberty to the Missionaries, and the Mandarines are said to be friendly towards the Christians.' The Chinese language, we are moreover told, 'is easily learnt.' These, if facts, are encouraging circumstances; and it is hinted to us, as a commercial nation, that the Chinese are not likely to allow us the boon of a free trade till a change takes place in their religious sentiments. Hence it may appear that interest, as well as benevolence, invites us to attempt their conversion.

An account of Mr. Scott's Sermon on this subject will be found in this Review, in the class of *Single Sermons.* **Moy.**

Art. 24. *A few plain Reasons why we should believe in Christ and adhere to his Religion:* addressed to the Patrons and Professors of the New Philosophy. By Richard Cumberland, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lackington and Co.

Modern unbelievers, to whom this little tract is professedly addressed, are not indebted to the author for politeness, whatever may be the obligations of the righteous for his serious exertions in a good cause. Mr. Cumberland first loads 'the Patrons and Professors of the New Philosophy' with a full share of contempt and abuse, and then benevolently attempts to convert them to the faith of Christ: but it appears to us to be a very strange mode of proceeding, to affront and disgust those whom we are labouring to convince and conciliate. It may perhaps be said, however, that Mr. C.'s address is sarcastic; that he has little hope of reclaiming men whom he compares to 'footpads in the cloaks of philosophers;' and that his real aim is to confirm the wavering Christian. For this latter purpose, then, the work may be well calculated. It briefly recapitulates the arguments on the necessity, reasonableness, and importance of revelation, and details the author's reasons for his belief of mysteries as component parts of it.—In addressing sceptics either of the old or the new school, it is not prudent, in the first instance, to encumber their faith with too many conditions. **Do**

Art. 25. *A Dialogue between a Country Gentleman and one of his poor Parish Neighbours,* who had been led away from the Church, under the Pretext of hearing the Gospel, and attending *Evangelical Preachers.* 12mo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1801.

This Country Gentleman, who is a person of respectable abilities, here disputes with a poor honest fanatic, over whom he is in course completely victorious: but where is the honour of vanquishing a man of straw, brought forwards on purpose to be *run through?*

If,

If, however, the contemplation of such a victory can do any good among the poor and the illiterate, who are always too ready to be deceived by fanaticism, (the *bane* of true religion!) this well adapted tract is worthy of praise.

Art. 26. *Devotional Exercises for the Use of Young Persons.* By Charles Wellbeloved. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Johnson. 1801.

The design of this little volume is excellent, and equal commendation, on the whole, may be given to its execution. It is not always easy to write in a manner sufficiently plain, intelligible, and attractive, to gain the attention of juvenile, or indeed of older persons: but we may hope that in general those youths, who have received a tolerable education, may enter into the ideas which are here imparted.—The exercises consist of *Reflections* on subjects highly suitable, each of which is accompanied by a prayer for the morning or evening of every day in the week. One of these meditations is on *Christianity*, concerning which the youth is led to determine that 'he will bind the gospel to his heart.' This we approve: but we may be permitted to hazard the question, whether Christianity be sufficiently regarded in this pleasing little volume? It is this divine revelation, contained in the Scriptures, which has brought us from *darkness to light*;—to this we owe our knowlege of the living and true God, our access to him, with hope in his mercy and favour, our acquaintance with his will, his benign promises and purposes, &c.—it seems, therefore, right that Christian teachers should make it the basis of their instructions and devotions, without regard to those perplexities and mysticisms by which it has been disfigured and obscured.

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 27. *Julian and Agnes*; or, the Monks of the Great St. Bernard: a Tragedy, in Five Acts; as it was performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By William Sotheby, Esq. F.R.S. and A.S.S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright.

This play is published without the usual accompaniments of a drama which has been actually represented: it has neither Prologue nor Epilogue, nor are the names of the Performers given with the Dramatis Personæ. The object of the author, however, is stated to be 'to endeavour to strengthen the bond of virtuous affection, by holding forth to public view the miseries attendant on the indulgence of criminal passion.' Julian, Count of Tortona, is represented as so stung by remorse for his infidelity to his wife, (the beautiful and amiable Agnes,) his deception of the unsuspecting Ellen, and his murder of her brother, that he flies from his home to the convent of the Great St. Bernard; and there he performs, under the name of Alfonso, the functions of Hospitalier to the Convent. His behaviour excites suspicions, and to the Provost he at length confesses his crimes. Meanwhile, Agnes, accompanying the dying Ellen over the snowy rocks, and through the dangerous passes of the mountain, is attacked by assassins, and rescued by Julian, but not without his being mortally wounded. He now discovers himself to Agnes, who generously accepts his contrition, evinces the strength of her

attachment, and procures for him the forgiveness and blessing of Ellen, before she expires. He then also dies, after having taken an affecting leave of Agnes. Such are the tragical events of this piece; the scenes of which are laid among the rugged Alps, and, adding to the effects of the dialogue, must have produced emotions appropriate to the Tragic Muse. Of the merit of the composition, a judgment may be formed from a Scene in the last Act:

'*Agnes.* In truth, I know thee not.
Lift up thy cowl! thy features may instruct me.
'*Alfon.* Oh! ask not that—you'll turn away in horror.
Let me depart unknown.—Yet, oh! her pardon.
I am—How shall I dare to look on thee?—I was,
In happier years, when virtue led my steps,
Thy husband.
'*Agnes.* Thou my husband!—
(*Recollecting him, screams.*)
Julian, Julian—
And yet I knew thee not.—These arms shall hold thee,
Husband.—
'*Alfon.* Oh! sound—once grateful to my soul.
But do not stain thy unpolluted lip.—
Look—look not on me so.—Oh! if thine eye
Flash'd vengeful lightning, I'd not turn away.
Why dost thou weep?—I cannot shed a tear.
'*Agnes* (*embracing him*). Weep in these arms;
And, as I clasp thee to my heart, recall
Past years of bliss scarce earthly?—Oh, recall
The nuptial vow that link'd our hearts in one;
And the fond hope, oft breath'd in prayers to Heaven,
That in each others arms, blessing and blest,
Our life at once might close.
It hath pleas'd
The Searcher of the heart, by misery's test,
To prove my soul: and here 'mid lonely wilds,
Where none but Heaven can witness, I invoke
Its minist'ring host again to grave the vow
That links my lot to thine.—O, Julian, Julian,
Come to my arms, and be at peace once more.
'*Alfon.* I have borne unmov'd
The shock of sternest horror—but thy kindness,——
Agnes!—I thought not ever to have known
The blessing of such tears ———
'*Agnes.* Oh, thou hast groan'd,
In bitterness of spirit, to the storm
That smote thee, sweeping by on icy wing:
And none has listen'd to thy woe, no voice
Spake consolation.
Behold me, now,
Firm at thy side, more blest to stand the storm,
And sooth thy misery, than in thoughtless years,

When,

When, the vain partner of thy joys alone,
I glitter'd in thy sunshine.
' *Alfon.* Heaven reward thee——
' *Agnes.* Heaven hath rewarded me.—Once more we meet.
Oh, give me all thy grief, and I will steal
Each pang away, and lull thee to repose.
These arms amid the wilderness shall stretch
Soft shelter o'er thee: here thy brow be pillow'd;
And, ever as thou wak'st, the eye of Agnes
Shall gladden thine; till, in the gradual peace
That gains upon thee, I shall taste once more
All bliss that earth can give,
' *Alfon. (falling on her neck, then starts back in horror).*
Peace! never, Agnes,
'Tis virtue's heritage. Guilt, guilt is on me.'

This picture of a guilty husband, oppressed with remorse and contrition, is dedicated to the Earl of Hardwicke, not because he resembles but because he forms a striking contrast to this tragical portrait. **Mo-y.**

Art. 28. *Opuscules Lyriques; i. e.* Short Lyric Poems, or Songs, presented to Lady Nelson. By M. Ceby, Naval Officer in the Service of his Britannic Majesty. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Booker. 1801.

These Songs appear to be the productions of a juvenile poet, and relate to tender, encomiastic, and innocent subjects. If they be not stamped with any great originality or force, they may at least rank among harmless effusions of admiration and affection, dictated by a muse of considerable grace and delicacy. The poetry comes under the class of what the French term *vers de Société.*

The volume is elegantly printed; and the airs to each of the songs, which are superior in taste and style to the old French *vaudevilles*, are well engraved on separate leaves. As most of these several stanzas are addressed to ladies of rank and fashion, the impression of them in this neat and pleasing form will render them an agreeable present to the author's friends, and save him the trouble of transcription.

Dr B....y.

Art. 29. *The Deaf and Dumb;* or, The Abbé de l'Epée. An Historical Play. In Five Acts. Translated from the French Edition, authenticated by the Author, J. N. Bouilly. To which is prefixed, some Account of the Abbé de l'Epée, and of the Institution for the Relief and Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1801. *

The dramatic Muse has been happily employed, in this piece, to spread the fame of a man whose memory will be dear to humanity.—As the story of the play has become familiar to the frequenters of our theatre, on which an altered translation, by a different hand, has been already represented, we shall not repeat it here: but the following scene will give the reader an idea of the manner in which this version is executed; at the same time that it illustrates the method of communicating ideas to the deaf and dumb.

* See a contrary opinion of this play, in the original, Rev. Vol. 32. p. 537.

'*Clem.* How is it possible that this interesting young man should, without the faculties of speech and hearing, understand and express every thing?

'*De l'Epée.* Not only so, but he instantly replies to every question.—I will give you an example.—

(*Making signs to* THEODORE. *He first claps* THEODORE *on the shoulder to command attention, then touches his forehead with two fingers of his right hand during a short time, points to* CLEMENTINA *with his forefinger, and pretends to write several lines on his left hand.*)

(THEODORE, *after shewing that he understands* DE L'EPEE'S *signs, seats himself at the table, takes a pen, and prepares to write.*)

'*De l'Epée.* (*to* CLEMENTINA.) Now ask him any question you please: he will write it from the signs I shall make, and immediately subjoin his answer.—He waits for you to begin.

'*Clem.* (*with timidity.*) I know not what question—

'*De l'Epée.* The first that occurs to your mind.

'*Clem.* (*after considering for a moment.*) Who is, in your opinion, the greatest man now alive in France.

'*De l'Epée.* That is a delicate question.—Have the goodness to repeat it slowly, as if you were dictating.

(THEODORE *shews that he understands* DE L'EPEE'S *signs, and writes after each of them.*)

'*Clem.* Who is, in your opinion—(*first signs by* DE L'EPEE *to* THEODORE: *Touches his forehead with the fingers of his right hand during a short time, points to* THEODORE *with his fore-finger, raises both hands above his head, then points to all the objects around him.*) the greatest man—(*Second signs: Raises his hand higher and higher three times, then both hands as high as he can, after which he brings them down on each shoulder, and then passes them over his breast to his waist.*) now alive—(*Third signs: Expresses life, by breathing once with great force, and alternately closing each hand near his heart.*) in France?—(*Fourth signs: Throws both hands forward with his fingers extended and his nails towards the earth, and then with his fore-finger describes a semi circle from left to right.*)——*N. B. These signs must be very distinct, but so quick as not to retard the scene.*

'*De l'Epée.* (*taking the paper from* THEODORE, *and presenting it to* FRANVAL.) You see, Sir, he has written the question with fidelity.

'*Fran.* (*examining it.*) And perfectly correct. (DE L'EPEE *again places it before* THEODORE, *who sits motionless, and lost in contemplation.*)

'*Clem.* He seems embarrassed.

'*De l'Epée.* Any one would be embarrassed to answer such a question.

(THEODORE *recovers from his reverie, becomes gradually more animated, and then writes.*)

'*Fran.* (*watching the motions of* THEODORE.) What intelligence in his looks! what animation in his gestures! what an union of emotion and satisfaction! I am much deceived, or his answer will bear the stamp of a feeling heart and an enlightened mind.

(THEODORE

(THEODORE *rises, and delivers the paper to* CLEMENTINA, *making a sign for her to read it.* FRANVAL *and his mother eagerly approach her; meanwhile* THEODORE *stands near,* DE L'EPEE *looking at him with steadfastness and enquiry.*)

'*Clem.* (*reading.*) "Question. Who is, in your opinion, the greatest man now alive in France?—Answer. Nature would name Buffon; science, d'Alembert; sentiment and truth, Rousseau; intellect and talents, Voltaire—but humanity, genius, and virtue, proclaim de l'Epée."

(THEODORE, *after making several signs, representing a balance, by alternately raising and lowering each hand, then raising his right hand as high as possible, amd pointing to* DE L'EPEE *with the forefinger of the same, throws himself into* DE L'EPEE'S *arms, who presses him to his bosom.*)

'*De l'Epée.* (*with emotion, which he endeavours to repress.*) This error must be forgiven—'tis the effect of his too enthusiastic gratitude. (*Again embracing him.*)

'*Fran.* (*taking the paper from* CLEMENTINA, *and still examining it.*) I can scarcely believe my eyes.

'*Mad. Fran.* This miracle would be absolutely incredible if we had not seen it.

'*Clem.* 'Tis impossible to witness it without an emotion that is most affecting.'

It would be unjust not to add that this translation excites considerable interest in the closet, and we conceive that it would have appeared to advantage on the stage. Fer.

Art. 30. *Rodolpho;* a Poetical Romance. By James Atkinson. Printed at Edinburgh. 4to. Phillips, London. 1801.

This satire consists chiefly of an imitation of Mr. Lewis's popular verses, intitled "Alonzo the Brave and the Fair Imogene," and of some German books of horror: but, probably, the Northern Bard was not aware that Mr. Lewis had already burlesqued his own ingenious doggrel, in the ballad of "Sally Green," or he would have spared the public an additional demonstration of the facility with which this sort of composition may be parodied. In truth, the original verses could boast of little merit, exclusive of their measure; and even that was probably borrowed from Dr. Watts's Poems for Children, some of which run very nearly in the same stanza, though stuffed with fewer words; such as,

"Abroad in the meadows, to see the young lambs
Run sporting about by the side of their dams," &c. &c.

It seems to have been the ambition of some late authors, to revive the terrors and superstitions of the nursery; and it has been the momentary weakness of the public to lend some degree of attention to their efforts: but, in those circles which may be truly denominated literary, this vicious taste has never been admitted; and the works in question have not ranked higher among real judges, than the History of Jack the Giant-killer, or Thomas Hick-a-thrift.

No source of horror and dismay has been left untouched by Novellists, excepting that which our woeful experience suggests; viz. the presentation of a romance, in five or six massy octavos, to a trembling Reviewer, whose distracted glance cannot find one new or interesting object in the work, or sees the only fair and copious one in the unoccupied margin. To such a wight, the apparition of a fresh ghost-story is indeed matter of dreadful apprehension; and so much does the serious tale commonly approach to the burlesque, that we find it very difficult to make the distinction.

We shall now give a short extract fromthe *dolorous* ditty before us:

'The storm rav'd aloud, and RODOLPHO, aghast,
Saw the fatal stream silently roll,
Where ELWINA!—he heard hollow sounds on the blast,
As fearful his eyes to just Heaven he cast;
Which struck dread and remorse on his soul.

'Dreadful phantoms arose in his agoniz'd mind;
And he shook with increasing dismay;—
They came, pale and bleeding, as roar'd the wild wind,
"Hail Fratricide, hail! with fell demons combin'd."
And thus, shrieking, they glided away.

'Now his palfry he furiously spurr'd,—and, with speed,
He hurried the knight o'er the plain;
Still the storm drove its arrowy sleet on his head,
And now those, whom his dark cruel soul doom'd to bleed,
He endeavour'd to fly, but in vain.

'Still they haunt him, O God, can repentance or tears,
Atone for so horrid a crime?
"Hail Fratricide, hail," still resounds in his ears,
Still ELWINA's shrill spirit before him appears;
Or whirls round his courser sublime.'

The best and shortest character that can be given, perhaps, of this work, is that it is almost equal to the nonsense which the author wishes to expose by it. **Fer.**

LAW.

Art. 31. *The Proceedings in the Court of King's Bench*, on a criminal Information against Thomas Aris, Keeper of Cold Bath Field's Prison, at the Suit of John Herron, for cruel, illegal, and inhuman Treatment. 8vo. 1s. Smith.

John Herron, late a private in the first regiment of foot guards, was committed to the Cold Bath Fields' Prison on a charge of attempting to seduce a fellow soldier from his duty and allegiance; and the Court of King's Bench was subsequently moved for a rule to shew cause why a criminal information should not be granted against Thomas Aris, keeper of the said prison, for cruel and illegal treatment of the said John Herron. Leave was given: but, when the case was argued, and the affidavits on both sides were read, on the motion to make the rule absolute, Lord Kenyon gave his opinion that, 'Not only was there no case made out to grant the information, but there was no case of criminality, not one single article

cle made out against him' (Aris); and that it was 'a shameful prosecution in all its parts and members.' The rule was therefore discharged with costs. G.2.

Art. 32. *Remarks, critical and miscellaneous, on the Commentaries of Sir William Blackstone.* By James Sedgwick of Pembroke College, Oxford; Member of the Honourable Society of the Middle Temple. 4to. pp. 320. 12s. Boards. Robinsons, &c. 1800.

This Volume has been neglected in consequence of unforeseen circumstances. It displays proofs of the author's reading and reflection, but it shews that his mind has in many instances been perplexed by the intricacies of metaphysical disquisitions, and that he is more inclined to censure than to admire the production of the celebrated commentator. The spirit of a caviller is indeed too frequently discoverable in Mr. Sedgwick's pages; and his style has not been sufficiently chastised and controuled by a correct taste.—As the reflections are confined to the first volnme of the commentaries, which discusses topics of a political rather than of a legal nature, Mr. Sedgwick's task has not yielded him many opportunities of evidencing his knowlege as a lawyer: but, where it is called forth, he shews an acquaintance with the reporters and other books of authority. S.R.

Art. 33. *The Law of Evidence.* By Chief Baron Gilbert. Sixth Edition. With Notes and additional References to contemporary Writers and later Cases. By James Sedgwick, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Clarke and Sons. 1801.

The Reputation of Chief Baron Gilbert, and of this particular production, is too well established to require any commendation at this period. The importance and difficulty, also, of the subject here discussed, are felt by every professional man; and the assistance which he has received from the contents of this volume has been frequently acknowleged with gratitude. Since the appearance of the last edition, many cases have occured in our courts, in which this topic has been discussed at considerable length, and with great ability. We allude more particularly to the two cases of *Bent* v. *Baker*, B. R. H. 29 Geo. 3. 3 T. R. 27., and *The King* v. *The Inhabitants of Eriswell*, T. 30 Geo. 3. 3 T. R. 707. In the first, it was decided that a broker, who underwrites a policy of insurance after having had it underwritten by others, is a competent witness for the defendant in an action against any of those who underwrote before him. The situation in which he stood, the interest resulting from it, and the wishes which he might entertain, were considered by the Court as applying to his *Credit* and not his *Competency*. In the latter case, the Court entertained a doubt, and did not come to a determination, whether evidence of declarations of a pauper who was dead, or insane, relative to his settlement, were admissible. Lord Kenyon and Mr. Justice Grose were of opinion that such evidence was inadmissible; Mr. Justice Ashhurst and Mr. Justice Buller were of a contrary sentiment; and therefore no order was made in the case.

Mr. Sedgwick has enriched this edition with many pertinent notes, and many appropriate references; though he has omitted to intro-

duce the above case of *The King* v. *Eriswell*, probably on account of there having been no decision. We think, however, that it should have been noticed by him; as well as the following case of *Reed* v. *Jackson*, B. R. E. 41 Geo. 3. 1 East 355, in which the Court decided that a verdict against a defendant in trespass, on an issue of a justification of a public right of way, negativing such right, is evidence in another action against another defendant who justified under the same right;—and that the cases relative to the inspection of corporation muniments and others might have been introduced with advantage: more particularly since the law on this subject appears to be settled by the case of *Southampton* v. *Graves*, which we noticed in a late article on the Term Reports *. We must, nevertheless, acknowlege that, if something be omitted in this volume which might have been inserted with propriety, much has been introduced that may be consulted with advantage. S.R.

Art. 34. *An accurate and impartial Narrative of the Apprehension, Trial, and Execution, on the 5th June* 1798, *of Sir Edward William Crosbie, Bart.* Including a Copy of the Proceedings of the Court Martial, which tried him; together with authentic Documents relating to the whole of his Conduct, and the Proceedings against him. Published, in justice to his Memory, by his Family. 8vo. pp. 130. 3s. Hatchard. 1801.

Sir Edward Crosbie was apprehended, and tried by a court martial, 'for traiterous and rebellious conduct in aiding and abetting a most villainous conspiracy for the overthrow of his Majesty's crown, and the extinction of all loyal subjects, and for endeavouring to conceal persons, knowing them to be engaged in the above-mentioned project.' On these charges he was found guilty, and suffered the sentence of the law: but it is the object of the present publication to shew that he was unjustly convicted, in consequence of improper testimony having been received, and admissible testimony having been rejected. It is impossible for us to give an opinion on this melancholy subject. S.R.

Art. 35. *An Analysis of the Law on the Abandonment of Ships and Freight*, as it relates to the Effects of the late Russian Embargo on British ships, and to the subsequent Liberation of the Ships from the Embargo; wherein the Subject is also discussed on Principles of Policy and Equity. By Aistroppe Stovin. 8vo. pp. 80. 1s. 6d. Butterworth. 1801.

Mr. Stovin here discusses the two following questions; first, 'If one of the abandoned ships bring home *any* cargo, for which she was chartered, or for the carriage of which the former owner had made any contract, whether the freight or earnings to be made by the carriage of such cargo belongs to the underwriters to whom the ship has been abandoned, or to the underwriters who insured the freight to the former owner, and have paid him a total loss thereon?' Mr. Stovin argues with much knowlege and ingenuity in favour of the underwriters to whom the ship has been abandoned.—The second question proposed, and which the author answers in

* Vide M. R. vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 25.

the

the affimative, is; 'Did any contract for the carriage of goods (whether by charter-party, or otherwise) made by the owner of an abandoned ship previously to the abandonment, and which contract he was prevented by the embargo from performing, become null and absolutely void on the abandonment of the ship and freight to the respective underwriters thereon?' – This little tract shews no inconsiderable share of information on the subject which it is designed to illustrate. S.R.

POLITICS.

Art. 36. *The Crimes of Cabinets;* or, a Review of the Plans and Aggressions for annihilating the Liberties of France and the dismemberment of her Territories, with illustrative Anecdotes Military and Political. By Lewis Goldsmith. 8vo. pp. 318. 6s. Boards. Printed for and sold by the Author, No. 5. Thavies Inn, Holborn.

The writer of this work must be confessed to have been a very bold man; and we are not surprized that he should have been unable to find a bookseller equally magnanimous with himself. A full budget of the blackest crimes is here laid at the door of cabinets and "regular governments:" but while he is performing this "vent'rous deed," he cautiously reminds us that 'by *Cabinet* he neither means nor assumes any other view, meaning, *inuendo*, or interpretation, than that of HIS MAJESTY'S MINISTERS;' and that he means the same by the term *Government*, whatever its adjunct, when applied to this country. This clause, designed to be a saving one, seems to have had its effect in bearing him harmless in his perilous undertaking: notwithstanding that some of the circumstances which he relates, and certain epithets which he employs, reflect much on those privileged individuals who are said to have "long arms." The author indeed allows that, in this liberal use of his colours in giving public delinquency a public portrait, he subjects himself to ministerial vengeance: but he pleads, in excuse, conscious rectitude and indignation, and the duty which he owes to his country.

According to his own account, Mr. G. has had singular opportunities of obtaining political knowlege; and his work is made amusing by many curious anecdotes, as well as by the very nature of his undertaking: which professes to unveil the schemes of kings and ministers, and to discover to the reader the arcana of modern European politics. He severely stigmatizes the views and conduct of the coalesced courts, through the whole course of the war. He reprobates the division of Poland; and, in the most indignant terms, he narrates the bloody feats of the Russian General Suwarrow at Praga, the suburb of Warsaw, where 10,000 men, after they had surrendered, and all the inhabitants, to the amount of 15,000, were butchered in cold blood. Respecting the miseries of suffering Poland, he delivers (he says) the testimony of an eye-witness. He then goes on to state a number of atrocities committed by the allied powers, which we cannot particularize, and respecting the truth of which charges we are wholly ignorant.

In his character of Public Accuser of Cabinets, Mr. Goldsmith does not forget the crimes of the Vatican. Pius VI. is termed a

'mitred

'mitred hypocrite;' and his proclamation, in which he promises that "every one who shall *kill a Frenchman*, shall have his name inscribed among the elect of God," is exhibited against him. The conduct of the court of Naples is not less severely stigmatized.

If all the crimes enumerated in this singular volume do not belong exclusively to cabinets, they may, however, be adduced as proofs of the malignancy and acrimony with which the late war was prosecuted. As Mr. G. discovers an extreme partiality for the French and their cause, he may be suspected of an undue leaning to their side: but he assures us that what he has stated is nothing but the truth, and that he has no other motive than an ardent wish for the return of moderation, liberality, peace, and solid prosperity to his own country. He asserts that he has the best authority for his representations, and often appeals to particular personages for the correctness of them: but, altogether, his book appears in such "a questionable shape" to us who are wholly *out of the secret*, that we know not how to "speak to it."

Another publication by this intrepid writer (a translation from the French) lies on our table, and will soon be farther noticed.

Mo.y.

CHEMICAL.

Art. 37. *Principles of modern Chemistry systematically arranged.* By Dr. Frederic Charles Gren, late Professor at Halle in Saxony. Translated from the German, with Notes and Additions concerning later Discoveries, by the Translator; and some necessary Tables. Illustrated by Plates. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Cadell jun. and W. Davies. 1800.

These volumes contain an abstract made by the late Dr. Gren, from his own System of Chemistry published at Halle in 1794 in four vols. 8vo.; and although they are much more concise than the original book, they were by no means intended by the author as a mere outline of it. This circumstance, indeed, very evidently appears from his minute account of many of the experiments; and the mode according to which they are related also shews that the Professor has not, in general, copied them from books, but that the greater part of them are facts observed by himself.

A short sketch of the history of the science is given in the introduction; and in chap. 1. preliminary matters are considered, such as the Elements of Bodies, Primitive Powers and the forms of matter depending on them, Chemical Affinities, and Chemical Operations and Instruments. In the subsequent chapters, the author commences with the Simple Substances: but, differing from the generality of other chemical writers, he concludes with the Metals.

Dr. Gren has rejected the atomical system of natural philosophy, and has adopted the dynamic system which is supported by Professor Kant. According to this theory, matter fills its space by its primitive powers of attraction and repulsion; its impenetrability is only relative; it is divisible *ad infinitum*; it fills its space by continuity, so that the objective vacuum is an imaginary being, and therefore even the particles of caloric and light exist in a state of continuity; and, lastly, the greater or less density of a body is only an expression

sion indicating the greater or less intensity of the primitive, attractive, and repulsive powers. The translator observes that, on account of this doctrine, certain unusual expressions, such as continuum, continuity, discrete fluids, &c. occur in the commencement of the book, which could not be suppressed without altering the sense of the text.

Howmuchsoever we may be inclined to differ from the learned author in certain matters of opinion, we must consider this as a very respectable work, since it contains many useful facts; and the translator has rendered an acceptable service to the chemical students of this country, by introducing it to them in the English language, and by making the requisite additions. **Hatch.**

Art. 38. *A Manual of a Course of Chemistry;* or, a Series of Experiments and Illustrations necessary to form a complete Course of that Science. By J. B. Bouillon Lagrange, Professor in the Central Schools of Paris, &c. &c. &c. Illustrated with Seventeen Plates. Translated from the French. To which is added an Appendix by the Translator. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Cuthell. 1800.

This work may be considered as a syllabus, on an enlarged scale, of M. Fourcroy's Lectures; since the author, in his preface, acknowleges that the plan adopted in the distribution of the contents belongs to that celebrated chemist. The whole is divided into sixty lessons or lectures; in which the simple or primitive substances are first considered, and then the other bodies are progressively noticed, according to their relatively compound nature. As it would be superfluous to enter into a particular account of the different lessons, we shall only express our good opinion of the performance in general, and our high approbation of the perspicuity which prevails in the arrangement. **Do**

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 39. *Louisa; a Narrative of Facts,* supposed to throw Light on the mysterious History of "The Lady of the Hay-stack." Translated from a French Work, published in the Imperial Dominions, A. D. 1785. By the Rev. G. H. Glasse, A. M. Rector of Hanwell, Middlesex. The Second Edition. Cr. 8vo. pp. 150. 4s. sewed. Faulder, &c. 1801.

The interesting story of *The Bristol Stranger,* known also by the name of *The Maid of the Hay-stack,* was translated from the French and first published by Mr. Glasse in the year 1785 *, without his name. The reasons for its re-publication, at this time, are stated in the preface to this edition; from which the following extract may be given:

'The unhappy Louisa was at that time (viz. the time when the first edition was published) considered as an object of very general interest and curiosity, both here, and on the Continent of Europe. A more convincing proof of this fact cannot be adduced, than the pamphlet in question; which, although from its tendency it was circulated with

* See M. Rev. vol. lxxiii. p. 473.

extreme

extreme caution, found its way into every part of the extensive dominions of the house of Austria, and was considered of sufficient importance by the then reigning Sovereign to be suppressed by his own immediate command and authority.

'To those persons who are acquainted with the facts detailed in a late interesting work, published by Nathaniel William Wraxall, Esq. containing memoirs of the Court of Vienna in the years 1777, 1778, and 1779, the co-incidence between the story of La Fräulen and that of Louisa will appear to be more than possible. The licentious character of the Emperor Francis I. and the pious anxiety of his august widow to draw a veil over his irregularities, afford the most perfect solution to every circumstance in the present narrative, which might otherwise be deemed obscure and enigmatical.

'Soon after the first edition of this work had made its appearance in an English dress, the poor Louisa, from a state of temporary and partial insanity, fell into total idiocy, and deprivation of mental faculties. The names of every person mentioned in the French narrative were repeatedly and anxiously recited to her, under an idea of arresting her attention, and, if possible, of establishing the fact, on the supposition of which the work had been published. But the silence and reserve, from which in her more lucid intervals she had never been induced to depart, was now changed into the apathy and torpor of morbid insensibility. The secret, whatever it was, is probably dead with her; for there is now very little prospect of its being further elucidated.

'The idea therefore held out in this narrative remains precisely in its original state, neither supported nor controverted by any evidence from abroad, subsequent to the first appearance of this work. At a moment when the death of the poor Louisa has in some degree recalled the attention of the public to her mysterious story, it has been judged proper to reprint the narrative, which on a former occasion was so eagerly received, and so rapidly and diffusively circulated.'

This unfortunate female died a lunatic in Guy's Hospital, 19th Dec. 1800. A postscript contains some curious and authentic documents transmitted from Bristol by Mrs. Hannah More.

Art. 40. *The Angler's Pocket Book;* or, complete English Angler: containing every Thing necessary in that Art. To which is prefixed, Nobbs's celebrated Treatise on the Art of Trolling. 8vo. 1s. 6d. West and Hughes.

This angler, whoever he be, gives twenty small pages, the result of his own experience for many years in the art piscatory, containing instructions for taking *minnow*, *loach*, *gudgeon*, *bleak*, *roach*, *dace*, *chub*, *bream*, *carp*, *tench*, *barbel*, *trout*, *pike*, *salmon*, large *salmon trout*, and *eel*, with some *general remarks*, in order that we may become expert anglers in a short time; adding (not very piously) an angler's decalogue;—and then he introduces to us Mr. Nobbs's complete *troller*, or the art of catching *pike*, (again) in *twelve chapters*: but if both these gentlemen had made more use of their rods, and none of their pens, we might have been spared the unprofitable perusal of this pamphlet, and the money of the public might be saved: for it

is

is neither more nor less than catching *small fry* with *stale bait*:—but a *penny* is a *penny*. We should not otherwise have taken notice of this sorry angler, but as sportsmen of success shoot a *jay* or a *woodpigeon* to *colour* the *bag*. **Green.**

Art. 41. *Practical Observations on Angling in the River Trent.* By a Gentleman resident in the Neighbourhood, who has made the *Amusement* his *Study* for upwards of twenty Years. 12mo. Boards. Robinsons.

The Author of these Observations is a Gentleman who tells us what he has practised in the art of angling, in that very difficult language, the language of information; and the Trent anglers are highly obliged to him. We may add, indeed, every other angler; for he not only teaches us to catch with success the most subtle and difficult fish, but to guard our bodies from the pains and penalties which they may suffer from the ardent and indiscreet pursuit of the game. His easy pleasantry on the receipts of the *old cooks* in angling diverted us much; and we think that they will now for ever sleep with their original authors. **Dº**

Art. 42. *Hints for increasing the Splendour of Illuminations*; securing the pleasure of the Spectator, and the Convenience of the Householder; with some Remarks on the Prevention of Tumult and Disorder. Particularly adapted to the Illuminations expected to take place on the Proclamation for Peace with the French Republic. By Photophilos. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

While professing to direct the arrangement and the explosion of squibs, rockets, &c. this writer gives us a *political flash in the pan*, that the illumination may extend to the mind also. Before he condescends to instruct the metropolis in the best mode of expressing their joy at the signature of the definitive treaty, he acquaints us with his sentiments respecting the war, and his abhorrence of the principles on which it was conducted. Being confident that the great bulk of the people never allowed its *justice* and *necessity*, and never entered heartily into it, he concludes that the demonstrations of joy on account of its termination will be excessive. On the day appointed for the official notification of peace, he wishes to make the metropolis a very gay and brilliant spectacle. He would illuminate the cupola of St. Paul's, have a vast bonfire in the centre of Lincoln's Inn Fields, a band of music at Charing Cross, and the city barges illuminated on the river, &c. &c. &c. He recommends transparencies without number; and for the ease and security of the spectator, he reminds him of the common law for walking London streets, viz. "that the person whose right hand is next to the wall, takes the wall of whomsoever he meets; the person whose left hand is next to the wall, gives the wall to whomsoever he meets." Our country readers, who visit the metropolis, may be thankful for the renewal of this hint. **Moy.**

Art. 43. *Hierogamy*; or, An Apology for the Marriage of Roman Catholic Priests, without a Dispensation. In a Letter to the Rev. J. A. from the Rev. John Anthony Gregg. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard, &c.

While our clergy are denied the privilege of becoming *laies*, some of the catholic clergy are asserting their right to be considered as *men*; contending that they ought not to be bound by an unnatural oath, and that, as celibacy 'is a privation, keeping those essential moieties of humanity, men and women, aloof from each other, superstitiously to repine at their natural and due perfections,' this vexatious restraint ought no longer to be tolerated: especially as it has a dangerous tendency, and is also incompetent to its end. We Protestants are positive that this pleasant and manly writer, once a catholic priest, is justified in taking a wife, because our Bible enumerates "*forbidding to marry*" among "the doctrines of devils." Should the catholic priests themselves open their eyes to the folly of this part of their discipline, we may venture to predict that celibacy will be soon kicked out of doors, as a situation to which 'the nature of man is not adapted.'

Mo-y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 44. *A Serious Persuasive to the due Observance of the Fast-Day:* Preached in the Parish Church of Richmond in Yorkshire, on the Sunday before the late General Fast. By James Tate, M. A. Master of the Free Grammar School of Richmond. 4to. Baldwin.

"As our dreadful marches" are changed to "delightful measures," as we are looking forwards to a day of general thanksgiving, and not to a fast-day, this persuasive might now be thought to be out of season: but it is not, and indeed never can be; because Mr. Tate's serious exhortations respect the state of mind which we ought always to cherish, in order to render our prayers and services of external worship acceptable to God. We are glad to learn that the admonitions of this able preacher obtained 'the attention of the audience,' and were received with much satisfaction:—may they have equal success in their present form.

Dº

Art. 45. Preached at the Parish Church of St. Andrew by the Wardrobe and St. Ann, Blackfriars, on Tuesday in Whitsun Week, May 26, 1801, before the Society for Missions to Africa and the East, instituted by Members of the Established Church; being their first Anniversary. By the Rev. Thomas Scott, Chaplain of the Lock Hospital. Also the Report of the Committee to the Annual Meeting, held on the same Day; and a List of Subscribers and Benefactors. To which is prefixed an Account of the Society. 8vo. 2s. Seeley, &c. 1801.

This clergyman is extremely zealous in the cause for which he here pleads; and he employs, throughout a long sermon, every argument that may contribute to excite a *missionary spirit* in the land. He draws a picture of the state of unconverted heathens, considers the duties which we owe to them, suggests some hints respecting the performance of these duties, and concludes with replying to objections, and recommending the plan of the Missionary Society. He computes the whole population of the globe at *one thousand millions*; and he apprehends that all professed Christians, of every name, do not amount to *one sixth* of this number. As yet, then, Christianity

anity has accomplished but a small part of its great object; and it becomes reflecting believers to consider by what means its triumphant progress may be accelerated. Mr. Scott thinks that, 'as the revival of pure Christianity would promote the cause of Missions, so a wise and holy zeal for Missions would reciprocally promote the revival of pure Christianity.' If this were to be the sure consequence of the plan, nothing ought to be urged against it: but Mr. S. does not seem to be aware that we may be *throwing pearls before swine*; and that the refined and intellectual system of the gospel is not likely to be preached with any degree of success, to men in the almost brutal state of savage life.—There is much good sense in Mr. Moseley's note to his Memoir, (see this Review, p. 95.) which applies immediately to this subject. He justly remarks, with an appeal to Divine precedents, that "Revelation is a system of truths suited to a civil and not to a barbarous state of society."—The history of Missions tends almost to throw a ridicule on the project. Though, therefore, we may wish to carry the knowlege of true religion, along with the goods of worldly commerce, to all the regions of the earth, we should calculate the probability of success in such an effort. By attempting too much, we generally fail to accomplish any thing. Would it not be wiser for this Society to direct their efforts to the Negroes in our own islands, than to grasp the immense project of evangelizing the vast population of barbarous Africa?

Mo-y.

Art. 46. *On preaching the Word*, delivered at the Visitation of the Right Worshipful Robert Markham, M. A. Archdeacon of York, at Doncaster, June 5, 1801. By John Lowe, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Mawman.

In this address to his brethren, Mr. Lowe exhorts them to preach the word with *faithfulness*, *earnestness*, *plainness*, and *simplicity*; with an humble dependence on the Divine blessing, and with a solicitude to enforce precept by example. If this advice were seriously followed, the general complaint of the inefficacy of preaching would in a great measure be removed:—but let not the people suppose that the whole blame rests with the clergy.

D.º

CORRESPONDENCE.

The limits of our work will not allow us to insert the long letter which we have received from Mr. Pearson, relative to an objection to his distinction between motive and principle, which occurred in our account of his Theory of Morals, in the Review for January 1801: but we trust that we shall not be guilty of any injustice towards him, if we briefly state what we conceive to be the substance and essence of his explanation. Our objection was this: "we cannot but think that there is too much verbal refinement in this distinction. Are not the motives by which a man is excited to the performance of an act, and the principle on which he performs it, convertible terms, each of them meaning nothing more than the cause of his performing it?"—Mr. Pearson candidly admits that this objection is justified by the etymology of the words; but he contends that mo-

ralists have generally used the word *motive* as referring to the expected consequences of an action, to the rewards or the punishments, to the good or the evil, which are likely to arise from it; and in this sense he wishes the word to be taken in his chapter on the motive to virtue. It would perhaps be a species of hypercriticism, which the consideration of the imperfection of language would justly condemn, not to allow an author to occasionally limit the extent of a general term to a particular meaning, when such meaning cannot be otherwise expressed than by a circumlocutory phraseology. In this point of view, we can have no objection to admit Mr. Pearson's construction of the words *principle* and *motive*; considering the former as referring to the will of God alone as a cause of action, and the latter as applicable to the "expectation of its consequences to the agent," as a cause of action.

O.W.

Corvinus seems inclined to defend the word *beastial*, censured as applied to *domestic animals* in our account of Mr. Maunde's Translation of the Abbé de Lille's Poem, (Rev. Nov. last), and refers us to Milton, Shakspeare, Dryden, and Gay, as *authorities* for it. Milton, however, applies it to *Idols and false Gods*—"beastial Gods," and "Sin's beastial train;" which usage of it strengthens our objection;—as also that of Dryden, who is speaking of "beastial citizens." In Shakspeare, *locis citatis*, we do not find it, nor is it in Ayscough's Index. Scene 14. Act. II. of Othello, to which *Corvinus* refers, is a *non-entity*.—Gay, indeed, uses the word, playfully, in his fable of *the Hare and many Friends:* but neither he, nor any one else that we recollect, applies it in a *good sense*, in *serious* composition, either poetical or prosaic. On this account we objected to it in Mr. Maunde's translation, in which it thus occurs several times, bestowed on harmless sheep and oxen; and thus it always disgusted us, and always will. If it please *Corvinus*, "why, let him keep his taste, and we'll keep ours."

Dr. B...y. & G. 2.

We cannot give the information which our Correspondent from the Iron Works requests, because the experiments in question have not been made public.

To an inquirer from Liverpool, we have to observe that Mr. Brown's publication never came into our hands; and it is now too late to take notice of it.

Mr. Cooke's packet was received.

The letter from Dublin is arrived, but we have not yet recovered our alarm at the appearance of its uncommon length, sufficiently to undertake a perusal of it.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXVI. of the Monthly Review is published with this Number, as usual.

30.

Errors, p. 9. 10, 36. 59. 86. 87.